Public Personnel Review

JULY, 1961

Appraising Personnel Administration

A Personnel Man Crosses the Potomac

Stemming the Tide of Personnel Paper Work

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Is Public Personnel a "Profession"?

The Bookshelf . . . Personnel Literature

Our Readers Write

Journal of the Public Personnel Association

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

The Journal of the Public Personnel Association

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Public Personnel Review . . . .

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editorial

Pursuit of Excellence in Personnel Administration

THE TWIN PHRASES "quest for competence" and "pursuit of excellence" appear again and again in speech and print. In telescopic style these catchwords express awareness among thoughtful people that the tasks of our time call for men and women possessed of almost superhuman ability and a deep desire to improve their performance.

Governments exert a mighty influence over life, property, and human welfare. Thus, public services *must* succeed in their quest for competence. Toward this goal personnel people make a notable contribution. They contrive effective ways to recruit and select that precious commodity—human power, and once found, to refine it.

These primary functions of recruitment, selection, and improvement of performance of public employees quite properly concern the personnel official. But we sound a note of caution lest too intense preoccupation with the requirements of excellence in other public employees keep the personnel man and woman from expanding their own horizons.

Those who wish to pursue excellence in personnel work can follow many paths. It goes without saying that mastery of techniques gives solid footing. Not techniques for their own sake, but techniques that serve the purposes of government. Progress in this direction during the last decade has been significant. The old charge that public personnel administration is a "triumph of technique over purpose" no longer survives critical scrutiny.

But the mastery of accepted techniques, even when they perfectly serve the ends of government, is not enough. Pursuit of excellence must include reaching out for new and more effective techniques, and the development of new and imaginative policies designed to meet changing situations.

To develop these new techniques and policies requires an open mind, a positive attitude toward new situations, and a willingness to experiment. In a fast-changing world, personnel people must learn to question the validity of concepts and practices long held sacred to make certain they are capable of meeting the demands of today's world. The personnel man must ask himself questions like these:

What is the practical effect of our use of the "rule of three"; does it help or hinder us in getting the right person into the right job? Will stringent prohibitions on political activity bring to our jurisdiction the kind of employee who will make a dedicated public servant? Is there merit in the use of seniority as an indication of worth, especially in view of the subjective nature of most service rating systems? Is there proof that the "independent commission" cannot by its very nature be as efficient a servant of management as a single administrator directly responsible to the chief executive? Why not classify men instead of jobs?

Let's make our point. It's good to question what we've been doing. We may discover we've been right all along. If so, we'll know *why*. If not, we may discover the fallacies in our previous thinking. In that moment, progress will be made—the breakthrough will come—we will be one step farther along in the pursuit of excellence and in the development of personnel policies adequate to today's needs.

Kenneth O. Warner

EDITOR

Meet the Authors

• **Ewan Clague,** author of *U. S. Manpower in the 1960's,* received his undergraduate degree at the University of Washington, Seattle, and his doctorate at the University of Wisconsin. During the early 1930's, he was Professor and Director of Research, Pennsylvania School of Social Work. He also served as statistician for the Committee for Unemployment Relief in Philadelphia and as a member of the Committee on Government Statistics, which reviewed and helped reorganize the Federal Government Statistics in 1933-34. Mr. Clague served with the Social Security Board as Director of Research for 10 years and later as Director of the Bureau of Employment Security. For the past 14 years, Mr. Clague has been Commissioner, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, which produces statistics on employment, unemployment, prices, wages, productivity, and many others.

• **Franklin K. DeWald,** author of *A Personnel Man Crosses the Potomac,* is the State Personnel Director for the Michigan Civil Service Commission. He became director in May 1960 after a nation-wide, competitive examination. Prior to going to Michigan he was employed by the federal government in various personnel capacities, the most recent of which was as Director of the Departmental Civilian Personnel Division of the Navy. Before that he had been Personnel Officer for the Navy Bureau of Ordnance, Assistant Director of Personnel for the Office of Price Administration and Personnel Director for the Works Progress Administration. Mr. DeWald was formerly State Personnel Officer for the Indiana Works Progress Administration and is a graduate of Indiana Law School with LL.B. and J.D. degrees. He was a charter member and first president of the Washington, D. C., Chapter of the Public Personnel Association.

• **Lew Fay,** author of *A Manpower Utilization Quiz,* is Personnel Director for the City of San Diego, California, where he developed the comprehensive medical examining program described in Personnel Report No. 545, entitled *Medical Examinations for Public Employees.* His experience in manpower utilization began with the War Manpower Commission during World War II when he was Assistant State Manpower Director for southern California. Educated at the California Institute of Technology and UCLA, Mr. Fay managed several business activities before entering personnel work with the California State Department of Employment in 1940.

• **Howard Ferguson,** author of *Nationwide Competition and Professional Pay,* is a principal associate of J. L. Jacobs & Company, Consultants in Public Administration, of Chicago. He has been active as a consultant in this field for thirty years, during which time he has served 21 states, 25 cities, 9 counties, various agencies of the federal government, and miscellaneous towns, "authorities," and institutions. His consulting assignments have included not only personnel work, but also organization, finance, management, and methods. He has a B.B.A. degree from the University of Texas and an M.S. in Public Administration from Syracuse University. He held administrative positions with the City of Fort Worth and later served as Executive Secretary of a local government research agency before entering the consulting field.

• **Bernice Fry Mitchel,** author of *Stemming the Tide of Personnel Paper Work,* is Personnel Technician, City of Modesto, California. She received the Master of Science degree from the University of California, 1938, and has taken personnel and public administration training at the University of Southern California, California Institute of Technology, and through the University of California Extension. Her personnel experience covers five years in private industry and

eight with the City of Modesto, where she was employed when a centralized personnel function was established. She is the author of Personnel Report No. 604, "Recruiting Ideas That Get Results."

• **Austin J. Tobin,** author of *Appraising Personnel Administration,* has been Executive Director of The Port of New York Authority since 1942. He joined the Authority as a law clerk in 1927 and later became Assistant General Counsel in 1935. He is Chairman of the Conference on State Defense, a national organization composed of state and municipal officials, and has been active in the creation of the New York-New Jersey Waterfront Commission. In addition, he has served as Port Consultant to the Royal Government of Thailand and as consultant to the World Bank on problems of port development in Israel. Mr. Tobin's degrees include the A.B. from Holy Cross, LL.B. from Fordham University, and an Honorary LL.D. from Adelphi College. In July 1957, the Commissioners of the Port Authority awarded Mr. Tobin the first Howard S. Cullman Distinguished Service Medal, and in December of that year he was awarded the French National Order of Legion of Honor—Chevalier by the French government. He was presented with the PPA Award for Merit in October, 1960.

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Appraising Personnel Administration

Austin J. Tobin

Viewed in the light of past accomplishments, personnel administration today stands on the brink of an even more exciting future.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION—and I am referring to the whole field of personnel administration in the United States, both public and private—has come a great distance during the past thirty years. At the present time, we would seem to be in a period of transition. I strongly suspect, however, that we are on the brink of the most important, as well as the most fascinating, period in the history of personnel administration.

Approximately thirty years ago personnel administration was thrown into national prominence as the result of two main social-economic forces—the depression of the thirties and the enactment of social legislation which affected virtually every worker in the country. One by-product of the depression was the crystallization of a fairly strong anti-management philosophy on the part of the workers directed against most members of management, with the possible exclusion of the first-line supervisor.

It is clear that no economic society can endure if the workers in that society are as distrustful as were American workers during the early thirties. This worker attitude represented a challenge to management which has, I think, been successfully met through the emergence of personnel administration.

The mass of social legislation which poured—much of it with incredible speed—from both federal and state legislative bodies during the same period created and posed a series of problems concerning the employee and his new legal rights—problems that few companies were prepared for. Prior to that period, personnel departments (the few that were so called) were primarily interested in hiring new employees and setting wages. The new legislation created a need for individuals in industry who could devote most of their time to the problems inherent in these new personnel requirements and to management's adjustment to them.

For a number of years these two problems —the unfavorable attitude of the worker and the pressures resulting from new laws, primarily the Wagner Act and the Fair Labor Standards Act—absorbed the attention of personnel administrators in private industry.

Concurrent Developments

Preceding and overlapping this period, three forces which were to have an impact on the development of personnel administration were in process. These were: (1) the experimental work of the behavioral scientists (best exemplified by the pioneering work at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Co.); (2) the increasing interest in testing, largely as a result of the proven value of the Army Alpha during World War I; and (3) the trail-blazing advances made in public personnel administration.

The Hawthorne experiments taught us that the individual is more than purely an economic man. In fact, we learned that his need to be associated with his fellows frequently overshadows money and other considerations, and that when the individual received recognition by his supervisors and felt accepted by his associates, his attitudes and outlook improved as well as his ability to collaborate. Like many a test finding, the doctrines subsequently evolved led to extremes, including an overemphasis on worker satisfaction to the neglect of the work itself; and so the pendulum now has begun a swing in the counter direction.

Editor's Note: This article was adapted from the author's address accepting the PPA 1960 Award for Merit presented to him at the Public Personnel Association's 1960 International Conference on Public Personnel Administration, New York City, October 23-27, 1960.

The need for an objective method of differentiating between the varying abilities of large numbers of people in handling the English language, solving problems in arithmetic, and in thinking abstractly was met by the psychologists who constructed the initial so-called "intelligence tests." The approach of mass testing has been applied successfully before and since, to the point where, perhaps more than any other factor, it is responsible for the virtual demise of the "spoils" system.

However, the use of tests in private industry led, unfortunately, to uncritical acceptance, by many, of rigid testing as a panacea for all selection problems. It led also to the frequent misuse of tests and to a resulting cynicism concerning their use.

Government Trail Blazers Lead the Way

Antedating and during this period, personnel administration as a profession was developing with rapid strides in various levels of government. We were far ahead of our counterparts in industry. While industrial relations specialists were primarily occupied with their labor relations problems, government personnel men had developed and mastered the problems of classification and job evaluation.

Their knowledge and use of testing were far in advance of the knowledge and use of tests in industry. Likewise, personnel administrators in the public service were ahead of the times in the general field of training. In the area of discipline, government, despite the criticism made of its procedures, set a standard for the proper and reasonable disciplining of employees.

It is interesting to note parenthetically, however, that as personnel administration in private industry has been overcoming its preoccupation with labor relations, it has broadened its scope into areas where government had pioneered. At the same time, we now find that personnel administrators in many government jurisdictions are beginning to be confronted with the problems of labor relations. I suspect it will not be long before the difference between personnel administration in public service and in private industry will be limited to relatively few areas.

These three forces—the experimental work of the behavioral scientists, the progressive development of new concepts in testing, and the opening up of new areas of proficiency by public personnel administrators—have all added new dimensions to general personnel administration. Personnel administration is now concerned with the total problem of manpower selection, development, and utilization. It has become a major and integral part of the management of any enterprise intent on developing and using the abilities of all employees in a manner best suited to achieve maximum benefits for the whole organization.

New Trends—New Personnel Problems

Given a static economic and social environment, it would not be too difficult to extract from our research, our techniques, and our many principles, those practices necessary to refine and stabilize our work climate and personnel relations. However, change—rapidly accelerating and marked change—is the one overriding element and characteristic of our time; and the literally awesome and momentous changes we have experienced during the past fifteen years are probably only a shadow of what we will experience during the next two decades.

The rapid changes which we are experiencing as a result of the tremendous technological innovations of the past few years are forcing us to make sharp adjustments in every area of our corporate planning and operations. Much of this is clearly reflected in the challenges facing my own organization, the Port of New York Authority—challenges which demand a dynamic approach to the constantly changing and increasing terminal and transportation needs of this great bi-state metropolitan area.

All of these demands of our two states in these fields of public enterprise mean greater responsibilities and work for their joint agency, the Port Authority, in virtually every phase of land, sea, and air transportation. And, of course, they present a new and heavy challenge to our entire personnel operation.

The frustrations presented to the personnel man by the rapid changes of our time are exemplified by the problem of supervision. I need not go into the matter of how

much time personnel men and women have spent trying to decide what the best forms of supervision are and how best to get supervisors themselves to understand them.

Our present supervision is based largely on our experience and research with the supervision of relatively unschooled workers. But the rapid trend of our society is for the decrease in such workers. We have already reached the incredible point where the white-collar workers in this country outnumber the blue-collar workers, and not by a slim margin. Also, all trustworthy signs indicate that high-talent technical and professional men and women will be in the work force in far greater numbers in the years ahead. These two facts pose an entirely new challenge to the problems of supervision.

Life in a Changing Personnel World

From my vantage point in a comparatively small-sized public agency, I find that one of the most perplexing problems facing us is how to deal with many highly talented individualists. The job requirements of today call for professionally trained and creative people. They cannot be dealt with in abstractions or by sweeping pronouncements of uniform application.

The problem is how to harness their creativity, how to channel their drives, and how to contain the frictions and strains that develop from the interplay of their talents and their different personalities. The difficulty, from the standpoint of administration, is, of course, how to apply differential treatment in an objective and equitable manner.

Even though we have behind us a wealth of data for use in solving many of our current problems, the problems themselves are changing so rapidly that many of our research findings and principles may be out of date. It is essential, therefore, that we assess the value and applicability of our existing knowledge and techniques and that we make every effort to speculate and plan for the future. Thus, because we recognize this, the most noticeable characteristic of personnel administration today is that it seems to be in a period of self-appraisal and speculation.

Modified Centralization

The appraisal in which we are now engaged covers the entire range of personnel activities. The most fundamental problem we are appraising is the organization of the personnel function itself. For many years it was assumed that all personnel functions should be centralized. Centralization has a number of advantages: it is more economic; it brings about uniformity; and it makes the problem of control easier.

Despite these important advantages, we have been questioning seriously the desirability of a wholly centralized personnel function because such centralization often brings with it insulation from the operating needs and the urgency of the problem of those for whom personnel administration was created. It has sometimes fostered complacency and has resulted in what has been called the triumph of technique over purpose. It has led to the gibe that personnel administration may be an end in itself.

In the interest of the future of personnel administration, the question of centralization versus decentralization must be resolved. A balance must be maintained between the need to organize in a manner which makes it possible to provide the best possible service, and, equally important, the need to organize in such a way as to facilitate the growth and stature of the personnel function. I do not know what the answer will be in any particular jurisdiction, but resolve it we must or the solution will be imposed upon us.

We at the Port Authority have attempted to solve this problem by taking advantage of the best elements of both a centralized and a decentralized operation. For example, we centralize in the personnel department the final responsibilities in such matters as the construction of tests, the classification of positions, and the determination of salary levels. However, we emphasize decentralization in our insistence that personnel administration constitute one of the primary responsibilities of each supervisor. He is responsible for maintaining the best possible personnel relations consistent with good operating results. He is held accountable for the training and development of his em-

ployees. He makes the final selection of his staff and is held accountable for their performance. If they are unsatisfactory, he must institute the steps needed to discipline or remove them.

In the development of organization-wide personnel policies and programs, representatives of all departments are consulted and participate. Similarly, in the construction of tests, supervisors and technicians in the departments concerned are consulted and used as subject-matter experts. In the allocation of positions to salary grades, we use committees composed of individuals from most departments.

We have found that this combination of centralization and decentralization maintains professionalization and yet assures maximum involvement of the affected supervisors. It also guarantees wholesome immersion of the personnel officer in the operating needs and requirements of the departments he serves.

Tackling Salary Ranges and Merit Increases

Another subject we are reappraising is our approach to wage and salary administration. In the past, we had attempted to resolve our salary administration problems by the use of salary ranges and steps within the ranges. These, theoretically, recognized the differences in contributions made by individuals to the enterprise as a whole, and also rewarded superior effort. It is apparent however, that there have been considerable gaps between our intention and the actual practice as it has developed.

In many systems which exist today, anyone performing at a minimum level receives his merit increase, and those performing in a superior manner receive no greater reward for their extra effort and attitudes. Unfortunately, this has carried over to the supervisory and management realm also. Our objective appraisal of this problem certainly indicates that we must become more flexible and more imaginative—a need that is further accentuated by the larger proportion of high-talent and professional people.

This problem gave us great concern at the Port Authority and while we have not yet solved it, I think we have made some progress. In establishing the salary ranges for our administrative, professional, supervisory, and executive positions, we considered but rejected the recommendation that these ranges have formal steps for merit increases. We preferred instead to permit departmental directors a latitude in their recommendations for merit increases. Accordingly, departmental directors are free to recommend a merit increase of from 5 to 10 per cent, depending on performance. This has made it possible for us to recognize, on an individual basis, differences in performance.

Applying New Concepts of the Individual

Still another subject which is receiving a great deal of attention in the current appraisal is the use we have made of our knowledge of the individual in the work situation. Through the Hawthorne experiments and, in more recent years, through other research, the concept of the purely "economic man" was, at least in theory, laid to rest. Yet, all too often today, we continue to find employee-relations efforts still being devoted almost entirely to economic benefits, with only lip service being given to satisfying the other needs of workers.

Admittedly, this is one of the most difficult of our problems. The results of the considerable social science research that has been done in employee motivation are much less amenable to ready implementation than the findings of the physical sciences. In spite of the difficulties, it is essential that we give top priority to the application of this research in the field of motivation to our day-to-day employee-relations efforts.

This, too, will require a sweeping reappraisal of many existing concepts. Again and again it has been demonstrated that such factors as a sense of belonging, a feeling of being needed, security, an opportunity for participation and growth, as well as a right to a voice in policies which affect him directly, are important values which an employee seeks in his work.

In the Port Authority we have attempted to fashion a personnel program that meets the personal needs of our employees. The physicians of our medical department thor-

oughly examine every employee at least once a year, and provide an extensive health-counseling service to assure a sound physical and mental effort on the job. Each supervisor is imbued with a feeling of responsibility for his employees' development on the job and for assuring the growth of his staff so that they reach their maximum career potential. This is achieved by on-the-job guidance as well as an outside educational process that includes reimbursement for courses taken, including courses at college level.

Maximum communication, to assure that the entire staff is kept abreast of current developments and management thinking, helps maintain a feeling of participation and a stake in the eventual result. The communication must, of course, be free to flow in every direction. We seek to stimulate the upward flow of communications through a highly developed suggestion system and a completely informal free access to supervisory channels. Grievances are settled expeditiously and, to the best of our mortal abilities, equitably.

The Boom in Training and Development

The facet of personnel administration which has been receiving perhaps the most searching appraisal for some time has been the training and development function. Indeed, I know of no other activity in the personnel field that is getting as much attention nor one in which the techniques are changing so rapidly and dramatically.

We have only to look at the tremendous sums of money being spent on the physical facilities for training constructed by organizations such as General Electric, General Motors, Shell Oil, IBM, AT&T and a host of others, to realize that training is at long last being given an emphasis indicative of a proper awareness of its place and importance. In the public service, we have seen our national government, through the Government Employees Training Act, emphasize the importance of training and development.

One of the most interesting developments resulting from our appraisal of training techniques and effectiveness has been the change in our approach to management training.

For a number of years, training for management consisted largely of exposing our supervisors and managers to the various principles, skills, and tools of management. This was done largely through lectures, anecdotes, and discussions. While these methods have their value, serious review has indicated that they are bare intellectual experiences and leave much to be desired in developing better supervisors and managers.

Since the primary skills of the supervisor and manager consist of interacting with others, planning, decision-making, and evaluating, our current techniques are directed toward the analysis and practice of these skills. We have come to realize only within the last few years that in developing managerial skills we must involve the individual in the actual use of these skills.

The work of the National Training Laboratories, the new program for managers at the University of Pittsburgh, and the various simulation and gaming techniques are all examples of the changes which have developed from our appraisal of training and development programs.

A Healthy Sign

I could continue to enumerate the many other areas of our work which are receiving needed critical evaluation. This period of appraisal should not in any way be regarded as a sign of failure on the part of personnel administration. It is rather a sign of strength, for only a profession that is truly secure and established can afford to look frankly at itself and assess its strengths, weaknesses, and potential.

A Personnel Man Crosses the Potomac

Franklin K. DeWald

Is "federal" personnel administration different from the "non-federal" variety? The author draws some interesting parallels.

STUDENTS and practitioners of public personnel administration in the United States have tended, either consciously or otherwise, to foster certain stereotypes about the differences between federal and non-federal personnel administration. These stereotypes are occasionally stated; more often, however, they are merely implied since it is sometimes taken for granted that there is little in common between personnel administration as practiced on the national level in Washington and what goes on "across the Potomac," or throughout the rest of the country in general. The idea persists, despite the fact that the federal government itself crosses the Potomac, and that personnel administration in the national government is carried on wherever federal employees are stationed —not only throughout the United States, but all over the world.

More than a year ago, the author had the unique privilege of accepting an appointment as Personnel Director for the State of Michigan. In moving occupationally as well as physically from Washington to Lansing, he carried with him a curiosity about these alleged differences—a curiosity that was more than intellectual. After twenty years in federal personnel work, this transition to a post in state government has proved immensely challenging and, indeed, fascinating.

This article, in essence, attempts to portray from a purely professional viewpoint some of the similarities and differences between personnel administration in the federal government and in the government of the State of Michigan. It is not presented in an attempt to generalize, but merely to report what one observer has noted.

View from the River Bank

On both sides of the Potomac, honest, dedicated, and capable people are trying to do the best possible personnel job they can for their employer, whether it be the federal government, a state government, or a local government. On both sides of the Potomac there are people who are doing an outstanding job. It is also true that there are some who are less than conscientious or less than capable and who are not willing or able to do a good job.

On both sides of the Potomac the job is basically the same: to get and to keep the best-qualified people that can be obtained to do the work that is necessary for the various governmental units to carry out their responsibilities. In all jurisdictions there are frustrations as well as rewards. There are accomplishments and lack of accomplishment. There are widespread differences of authority and responsibility to carry out the objective of personnel administration with consequent differences in results.

Obviously all state civil service commissions are not like Michigan's. There are wide variations in the authority, practices, and procedures of the different states. The coverage of positions under the merit or civil service system also varies widely. However, the similarities in the two systems under discussion—federal and state—are great. There are also some outstanding differences. This article can do little more than summarize some of the differences and similarities. While basically we are attempting to show the operation of the two civil service commissions, the impact of these two central bodies on the agencies which operate under them is reflected to some degree for purposes of illustration.

Sisters Under the Skin

Size alone creates some problems, but they are not considered important. The federal civil service concerns itself with approx-

imately two million employees; Michigan with approximately thirty-one thousand. While the federal Civil Service Commission is concerned with the various cabinet departments, independent agencies, and others which have more or less autonomy, amounting in all to about 70, there are 92 separate and distinct agencies of the state government. From the viewpoint of occupations alone, the state has 1,900 different occupational classes, in contrast to the approximately 495 occupations which are covered by published standards of the Civil Service Commission in Washington.

Obviously the state is not as large as the nation. However, in this connection it is pointed out that the distance from Lansing, the state capital, to the farthest point in the state, is approximately the same distance as it is from Lansing to New York City or to Washington, D. C.

At the federal level, the U.S. Civil Service Commission, being created by law and subject to law, is in more or less constant contact with the Congressional Committees that are charged with civil service matters. In the state there are no similar committees, and because the Michigan Civil Service Commission was founded by a constitutional amendment, which involves a direct vote of the people, there is little contact between the Civil Service Commission of the state and the state legislature.

In both jurisdictions inquiries are received from the executive and legislative branches regarding employment opportunities for constituents and other similar matters. The White House has a civil service liaison office, or the equivalent, which provides ready access to the chief executive. This formal relationship does not exist at the state level. Instead, there is rather easy access, in the event it is required, through the governor's executive assistant or other top staff members.

Contacts with the agencies at both levels are handled informally as well as formally. At the federal level, through the Interagency Advisory Group, information can be exchanged and new programs explored or implemented. At the state level, the State Personnel Officers' Association performs a similar function. The state personnel director sits as a member of the association and joins in with the state personnel officers in discussing personnel problems.

State Closer to the People

It is the writer's personal opinion that state civil service is closer to general public opinion than is the federal. With the exception of Washington, D. C., and its special columnists who write on civil service matters as a specialty, there generally is not much coverage given in the newspapers outside of Washington. At the state level there is a great deal of interest in civil service matters. The activities of the Civil Service Commission are widely reported and printed in the hundreds of daily and weekly newspapers throughout the state.

State agency heads as well as state agency personnel officers are in almost constant contact with the state Civil Service Commission on personnel matters. Because of this, I believe that the state commission is much more receptive to agency problems and has a much better understanding of such problems. Part of this, of course, is because the authority of the state Civil Service Commission has not been decentralized and there is more need for intimate, day-to-day knowledge of operating conditions in the agencies.

At the state level, provisions have been made for the hearing of employee or agency appeals through a Civil Service Commission Hearing Board, whose members are appointed by the commission. The board is composed of responsible, private citizens who act as members when called upon to do so by the Civil Service Commission. They are paid a per diem and necessary expenses. They are not employees of the state in the usually accepted sense. The Board of Appeals and Review of the U.S. Civil Service Commission operates in somewhat the same manner, except that it is a full-time board made up of employees of the Civil Service Commission.

Appointments and Promotions

In the federal civil service, appointments are made as a result of competitive examinations. The appointing authority can select from the top three names. A similar system is followed in the state. Promotions

in the federal service are made as a result of following the Civil Service Commission's approved promotional plan of the agency. This varies considerably, depending upon the type and size of the federal establishment. Rarely, if ever, would a competitive promotional examination be given.

However, in the state of Michigan all promotions are on a competitive promotional basis. Formal civil service examinations are announced for promotions with the competition usually limited to the agency in which the promotion would be effected. Some state-wide promotional examinations are given which would affect more than one agency.

In any event, the Michigan Civil Service Commission is definitely involved in the processing of an individual promotion in the state service. This is rarely true in the federal service, although the U.S. Civil Service Commission has the authority to post-audit promotions and to see that the promotion policy previously approved by the commission had been followed. In some instances, promotions to top level (super-grades, G.S. 16, 17, and 18) require prior approval of the commission.

Classification and Wages

The classification of individual positions in the federal service must be in conformance with classification standards, adopted and promulgated by the federal Civil Service Commission. In some cases, special classification standards have been developed by the agencies and approved by the Civil Service Commission where there are special or unique positions confined to one agency. Positions are allocated or classified by the agencies subject to commission post-audit.

In Michigan there are 1,900 occupational classes, all of which have been established by the state Civil Service Commission, and no individual may be put into such a position without the specific approval of the commission.

Salaries in the federal service are determined by placing the position in one of eighteen classes or pay levels, which are established by Congress. In addition to this, Congress has seen fit to limit the number of positions that may be placed in the upper three grades. On wage board or blue-collar work, the rates of pay are established by the agencies as a result of locality wage rate surveys and determinations, usually accompanied by the approval of the head of the agency prior to effecting a wage change. The post office has a separate pay system also established by Congress.

All rates of pay in Michigan for the 1,900 different occupations are determined by the Civil Service Commission, and not by the action of the legislature. This holds true for both white-collar and blue-collar workers. The rates are state-wide.

Training, Processing, and Procedures

There was a widespread difference in training in the federal service depending upon the agencies' interest in it and also upon their legal authority to conduct training. With the passage of the Government Employees' Training Act in recent years, all federal agencies have comparable training authority with the Civil Service Commission to give them guidance and direction.

The Michigan Civil Service Commission gives guidance, direction, and coordination to all state training programs. There is some difference in the kinds and types of training conducted by the individual state agencies, depending upon their need for such training and their interest in it. There is no question, and never has been, as to the differences in degree of authority for the conduct of training.

The federal civil service, especially during World War II and thereafter, developed a program of decentralization of personnel actions to the agencies and a delegation of the examining process to what are known as Civil Service Boards of Examiners, composed of agency employees. There has been no comparable effort on the part of the State of Michigan to delegate the examining process or the processing of personnel actions to state agencies. These are still tightly controlled by the Civil Service Commission itself.

Nearly all personnel actions in the federal civil service are taken by the agency, subject to post-audit by the Civil Service Commission. The reverse of the situation is true in most of the states, including Michigan, which

require prior approval of the state Civil Service Commission before the action can be effected.

Recruiting and Grievance Systems

New employees are recruited in the federal service through the preparation of examination circulars, or examination announcements, which are given widespread distribution and displayed in post offices. Only in recent years has authority been extended for the advertising of federal vacancies through newspapers and periodicals, and even now such expenditures are held under rather tight control.

Michigan follows a somewhat similar practice of distributing examination announcements or circulars to a widespread list of recruiting sources and the announcements are displayed in county clerks' offices. The state has vigorously advertised in newspapers and periodicals for shortage occupations and has been doing so for many years. Both federal and state services recruit through college visits, attendance at professional society meetings, etc.

Typically, a federal employee may get his grievance all the way up to the head of an agency for settlement if it is not settled at a lower level. Normally, it is only in the case of veterans that the grievance can be appealed to the Civil Service Commission. In the Michigan system, appeals from employees, whether veterans or non-veterans, can be taken through their agency to the Civil Service Commission.

Veterans' Preference

The federal civil service gives veterans five additional points on their examinations. Disabled veterans receive ten additional points. In the case of layoffs, veterans take complete priority over non-veterans. The federal service sees the veterans' preference as a continuing right of the individual.

In contrast, the Michigan Civil Service Commission gives five additional points on examinations to the veteran. A disabled veteran receives ten. These points are added only to a passing score. The veterans' preference on examinations is good for only the first three years after the individual has left military service. The veteran in the state is not given preference in the event of layoff, but must compete with non-veterans.

Retirement Systems and Fringe Benefits

The retirement systems of the federal government and the State of Michigan are similar in many respects. Both are contributory systems and provide roughly comparable returns to the employee, based upon years of service and salary levels. In Michigan, the retirement system is coupled with Social Security, whereas in the federal civil service system it is not, except for the early years of employment.

From time to time, improvements have been made in both systems. Both have mandatory retirement ages of 70. Both have optional retirement at earlier ages, dependent upon completion of required periods or terms of employment. Both provide for disability retirement and reduced annuities for survivors.

Both jurisdictions work a standard 40-hour week. For overtime, the state pays straight time only, whereas the federal service permits time and one-half on a descending scale, depending upon pay level. Compensatory time off, in lieu of overtime, is permitted by both, and the employees earn 13 days sick leave per year. Both jurisdictions permit the accumulation of an unlimited amount of sick leave.

In the Michigan civil service system, upon retirement or death the employee or his estate is paid 50 per cent of the value of the accumulated sick leave that exists at the time of his retirement or death. This is not true in the federal civil service. On annual leave, federal employees accumulate from 13 to 26 days a year, depending upon years of service. In the state, employees accumulate from 13 to 19 days a year, depending upon years of service. The conditions for granting leave are similar in both jurisdictions.

The state has a system of longevity pay which provides an extra cash payment for all employees who have completed at least six years of service. This extra pay is given to the employee in a lump sum about the first of December, and is in a varying amount depending upon years of service in excess of six and the pay level of the individual involved. This varies from a minimum of $120

to $600 per annum for individual employees.

In the federal civil service, military leave for training purposes is granted with continuance of full civil service pay. This same practice had been followed by Michigan up until the first of March of 1961. The state now provides only the difference between the military pay and the full civil service pay for the period of training. This represents a change back to the system which was in effect in the state until 1949.

Federal and state employees get the same holidays during the year with the exception of Washington's Birthday, which is not observed in the state. Offsetting this in the state is the provision that an extra half-day holiday is given when Christmas and New Year's fall on a Tuesday, Wednesday, or Thursday. Federal employees are usually given similar half-day holidays by Executive Order.

Insurance, Travel, and Awards

Both systems provide life insurance and medical-hospitalization insurance for its employees on a voluntary basis, with the governmental unit paying a part of the cost. The federal system has now been in operation for several years, whereas the state system will not go into effect until after the first of July, 1961.

Varying amounts of life insurance are provided by both systems dependent upon the employee's pay level. In the state system the ceiling has been established at $10,000 maximum, in contrast to the $19,000 ceiling of the federal civil service. State employees have not been offered as wide an option in choosing the carrier for health and hospitalization insurance. They have been limited to two plans: the first is similar to Blue Cross-Blue Shield coverage, and the second is a deductible plan, which provides for greater maximum benefits with the employee sharing in the cost. It is similar to one of the options offered under the federal plan.

In federal civil service under standardized government travel regulations federal employees are limited to $12 per day, an amount designed to cover both hotel costs and food costs. Transportation costs are covered in full. Likewise, in the state civil service transportation costs are covered in full; however, there is a sublimitation on the hotel cost and the individual meal cost which totals up to $12.75 per day. In the case of out-of-state travel a somewhat higher allowance of $16.00 per day is permitted for state employees.

The federal civil service has a rather comprehensive system of awards for beneficial suggestions and certain types of achievement. The state does not have such a system at the present time but has been doing necessary research work in that connection which may lead to the establishment of such a system in the future.

Employee Relations

In both jurisdictions, employees are free to join or refrain from joining any organization, association, or union as they might wish. Also, they both permit the representative of the employees to present grievances and to represent their membership before management. In addition, the state permits payroll deduction for dues, if the employee signs a payroll deduction authorization. It also permits Credit Union deductions as well as deductions for Community Chest pledges and for the present employee-pay-all group insurance plans.

Organization

The federal civil service system, created by statute, is now over 75 years old. It has been changed from time to time by amendments to the basic law. The Michigan civil service is founded on a state constitutional amendment which went into effect slightly over 20 years ago. The constitutional amendment has not been changed during that period of time.

The federal Civil Service Commission is funded by annual Congressional appropriations for its operation. The state Civil Service Commission is funded through an automatic provision contained in the constitutional amendment which provides 1 per cent of the previous year's classified or civil service payroll.

The Pendelton Act, which provided for the establishment of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, provided for three commissioners, one of whom should be chairman. The commissioners are appointed for staggered

six-year terms. Not more than two of the three commissioners shall be of the same political party.

In contrast, the Michigan civil service commissioners are four in number, and not more than two shall be of the same political party. They are appointed for eight-year staggered terms. The term of the governor, who appoints them, is for only two years. The appointments are not subject to state senate confirmation. The Michigan commissioners are non-compensated and meet approximately two days each month. The federal civil service commissioners are paid and are full-time employees of the federal government.

The federal civil service system has established the Schedule C to provide for the appointment of policy-making and confidential positions which are exempt from the Civil Service Act. In Michigan, only two positions for each agency are of this type and are excluded from civil service jurisdiction. In both the federal and state jurisdictions many of the positions which could be filled on the basis of patronage are actually filled by career employees or are permitted to be vacant. In Michigan about half of these positions are vacant and have been for a long period of time.

Best Job by State

Both jurisdictions are attempting, to the best of their ability, to carry out their primary purpose. This primary purpose, as mentioned earlier, is to secure and retain the best people they can get to do the work of their respective governmental jurisdictions. Because of varying situations and varying legal authority, they cannot proceed along identical lines—and they should not for many reasons. It was not the purpose of this article to discuss those particular differences or to go into detail on the reasons for them.

Basically, the author is firmly of the opinion that the state Civil Service Commission set-up, at least in Michigan, is able to do a much better job to meet its primary obligation of getting and keeping the best people than is the federal establishment. Because of greater basic authority, the state Civil Service Commission can proceed faster and can be more responsive to agency needs. The control over pay is extremely important to effectiveness and cannot be overemphasized. The holding of competitive promotional exams is also a forceful strengthening factor in Michigan.

The civil service system in Michigan is a very strong one; and in this respect, it differs from civil service jurisdictions in many states. It has a great deal of authority and consequent responsibility, which cannot be matched by many state jurisdictions. It is adequately financed and sufficiently staffed to do an outstanding job. If it does not do it, it is its own fault.

Who Has January, 1961?

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Stemming the Tide of Personnel Paper Work

Bernice Fry Mitchel

A revolt against paper despotism spurs a new procedure that reduced the number of application forms processed by 84 per cent.

WE CAN'T get along without paper, but many of us share a growing concern that, instead of its serving us, we are serving it. We are paper-pushing until we can't get our work done. Our days are spent emptying our IN basket, and filling our OUT, RUSH, HOLD, FILE, and WASTE baskets—in the wrong order.

The instant a piece of paper is created, the damage is done. It becomes a tyrant, making demands on our time. Take a look at the civil service employment application form, as an example. Once it is filled out, parts of it must be reviewed in detail to determine that the applicant meets the minimum legal requirements for the position. This consumes time to the degree that the requirements are complex.

Correspondence may be needed to obtain additional information. If screening is done with the applicant present, it may take considerable discussion to ferret out whether or not he really does meet the requirements. The interviewer and the applicant strain to make the application fit some pattern—so it can be filed somewhere.

Paper Tyranny

When an application is completed, a clerk's slavery begins. The paper has to be arranged alphabetically, chronologically, or by classification; it must be filed away with its kind; it must be taken out to be changed; it must be ticked, coded, stamped, okayed, and be determined to be active, inactive, pending, in suspense, or what have you.

Conceived in the toil of the applicant, the application form is a part of him, and he will come back to visit it to make sure you haven't lost it. The clerk will cheerfully locate it for him and efficiently check a few items for up-to-dateness. She will determine that the address, telephone number, and latest employment history are correct; she may put a check-back date on it before she re-files it.

Comes the examination and the application form demands its exercise. It needs sorting, stacking, stamping, counting, and shuffling, according to whether the candidate appeared for the test, and whether he passed or failed it. Every time the candidate takes another step in the examination process, his paper counterpart goes through its paces.

A Feeble Attempt To Cut Back

We had been accepting applications from all citizens who wanted to fill one out. Some time back, files became voluminous enough that a files consultant suggested we set up cross-reference cards to keep track of applications. We did so and it worked wonderfully; we had good control and could find everything easily. But we had several feet of card files to keep track of several feet of application forms.

About a year ago we decided that giving an application form to everyone who asked for it might not be the considerate act we meant it to be. Are we doing anyone a great favor to let him spend hours putting down his life's history and leaving it on file all over town? We decided to accept applications only when we were actively recruiting. Not a particularly startling idea. And it didn't make much change. But it was a start. At least we stopped the *increase* in volume at that point.

A Bolder Step

Our next plan at first seemed so revolutionary to me that it scared me. The plan: Take no applications from prospective em-

ployees until after they've passed the written test! In our case this meant taking only 16 applications for each 100 we'd handled before. It was an exciting prospect. We decided to try it, starting July 1, 1960.

Now we have no applications for those who apply but don't show up for the written test—or from those who take the test for exercise—or from those who pass the test but decide not to take the oral—or from those who have taken other jobs. We don't even have one from the person who intends to take the oral but finds at the last minute he cannot appear.

How It Works

We show the applicant the minimum requirements for the examination and he signs a little statement that he has read them, meets them, and understands that, even though he may be successful in the examination, he cannot be appointed if, in the city's judgment, it later develops he does not meet every detail of the requirements. So he screens himself, and we invite him to the test on the basis of this statement on his invitation card.

The card which is filled out by the applicant is multilithed with the invitation to the written test. The applicant brings it with him to the examination, we pick it up, and re-use the same card in a window envelope to address his test results notice to him. If he has failed the written test, we have only his name on a list in the examination folder—no paper to handle. If he has passed the written test, his notice goes out with an application form enclosed, and we ask him to bring it with him to the interview. Minimum requirements are then checked, either by the interviewer or the personnel clerk prior to interview.

In our setting, this is working well. It hasn't backfired once in ten months' trial. The trouble we expected simply has not materialized. Eventually someone will pass the written test and when we see his application, we will find him short of the requirements and we will have to reject him. We will face it just as we now face the police candidate who somehow gets through the entire examination process and then shrinks a quarter of an inch when the doctor measures him—or who gets through his oral interviews by lip-reading, but can't hear well enough to function by radio.

We seem to have no problem of people taking tests just for exercise, or in the hope of bluffing their way through. Gradually I'm forgetting why I was almost afraid to try this technique.

Where It Works

Obviously, this won't work on an examination which is to consist of a ranking of applications. There are other areas into which we will proceed only thoughtfully and slowly, if at all. But in the areas of large volume—in our case, entrance level jobs in clerical, police, fire, and public works jobs—it works well; and because of the large volume, it really pays off handsomely.

Requirements are well defined. The applicant can determine his own height, weight, age, education, and experience. Those who would fudge on this would complete an application form with fudge anyhow.

Applicants are at first bewildered, then delighted when they don't have to fill out a lengthy application form. This makes things easier for busy people to participate in our exams. I believe the percentage of serious candidates is at least as great as before. With our paper load cut down we can speed up the processing which follows the written test, and have time to verify the facts on the applications we do accept.

U. S. Manpower in the 1960's

Ewan Clague

New trends, pressures, job opportunities, and an unbalanced labor force are but a few of the problems personnel people face today.

THE PERSONNEL director of the 1960's is going to be a more vital part of any large-scale organization than he has ever been before. He will be facing somewhat different problems than he has encountered during the past two decades. He will have to adjust to new conditions in the labor market, conditions which will complicate his task of helping to man an efficient organization, and which at the same time may produce community legislation or other actions bearing upon his work.

In this paper, I shall deal, in turn, with the manpower outlook for the 1960's, then with the problems which are likely to exist, and finally with the opportunities which grow out of our changing manpower picture.

The Manpower Outlook

The first and most basic factor in the labor market during the coming decade is the growth of a somewhat unbalanced labor force. This does not mean that the labor force has been smoothly balanced in the past. Since World War II the nation has had a comparative shortage of young workers; that is, new entrants into the labor force. To state it another way, the labor force has perceptibly aged on the average during the past decade, with an increase in the proportion of men and women in the older age groups.

We have now reached the point where the mass of young people born in the 1940's are beginning to reach working age. During the 1950's we had an average annual entry of about 1¾ million new workers. By 1960 this number had reached about 2 million. From now on it will continue to rise, rather slowly for the next few years, then with a big jump in 1965 (when the babies born in 1947 reach eighteen years of age), and then rise gradually to an entry rate of 3 million per year by 1970. Over the entire decade it is estimated that about 26 million new workers will enter the labor force, an increase of 40 per cent over the decade of the 1950's.

Supply

This wave of new young workers has already begun to manifest itself in the labor market. From May to June each year there is a sharp increase in the number of young people under twenty years of age seeking work—some of them leaving school for permanent jobs, but many of them wanting temporary work during the summer. In June of 1960 the net increase among these youngsters was 2.2 million. This was over 300,000 more than the May-June increase in 1959, nearly 700,000 more than in 1958. Since 1958 was a recession year, we might go back to the prosperity year 1957 for a comparison. The May-June increase of 1960 was almost 500,000 more than 1957.

This large number of new young entrants was partly responsible for the unemployment rate last June. Out of the 2.2 million, approximately 1.4 million got jobs; yet this left 800,000 of them unemployed—about a fifth of the total unemployed in the country.

Looking forward for ten years, we can estimate that very nearly half of the net increase in the labor force during the 1960's will be in the age group under twenty-five years. In the meantime, the aging of the existing labor force will continue. Almost all of the other half of the ten-year increase will

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be in workers over forty-five years of age. This is a continuation of the trend of the 1950's. People are living longer, and the numbers who reach old age are considerably larger than the rate of withdrawals from the labor force through death or retirement.

The labor force group in short supply will be those in the prime ages, from twenty-five to forty-five years. For most of the decade there will be no increase at all in this group; the slight gain which will be recorded by 1970 will occur in the last few years of the decade. This age group represents the prime work force of the nation. They represent the best balance of experience, skill, and physical strength. Also, they are mostly males, because these are the years in which the majority of the women of the nation are at home rearing families.

Finally, women constitute an important factor in the rise of the older age group. It is estimated that, in addition to the 26 million new young entrants into the labor force, there will be about 3 million women re-entrants, most of them beyond the age of thirty-five. In fact, not far from half the net increase of 13.5 million in the labor force during the coming decade will be women, even though these now constitute only about a third of the labor force.

Demand

Thus far we have been looking at the supply side of the picture. We must now look at the demand side. The coming decade will see some marked shifts in jobs and occupations. Some of these shifts represent trends which have been in operation a long time; others represent a reversal of recent trends.

A long-time trend, which is still under way, is the shift from the farm to the city. This has gone on for about fifty years. There were more farmers and farm workers in the labor force in 1910 than there have ever been since. The outlook is for a still further decline in the farm labor force. The spectacular productivity gains in agriculture are still under way. One crop after another has been brought under some form of mechanization. There are better seeds, better fertilizer, and better farmers. An extension of the trend would indicate a further decline of nearly a million farm workers during the 1960's.

Within the non-farm sector there are also important shifts taking place. In 1919, immediately after World War I, about two-thirds of the labor force was engaged in the production of goods; that is, in the four basic industries—farming, manufacturing, mining, and construction. About one-third were engaged in what we might call service activities—trade, transportation, public utilities, government, and all other kinds of services. In 1959, forty years later, we still had only about the same absolute number engaged in the production of goods. All the growth in the labor force in the past forty years has occurred in the service group. By 1959, employment in these service industries had multiplied nearly two and a half times since 1919 and was 5 million higher than goods employment. There is still no indication that this trend is beginning to level off.

Blue Collar Fading

Still another significant example is the marked shift from blue-collar to white-collar jobs. Forty years ago the great majority of jobs in this country were of the blue-collar variety. Since the mid-1950's the white-collar occupational group is actually larger. The decline in farm employment has been matched in part by the growth of retail and wholesale trade employment. Even within manufacturing, the shift is taking place. Since the end of World War II there has been a decline in the number of production workers (plant workers) in manufacturing industries, while at the same time there has been an increase of nearly two-thirds in non-production workers, such as office workers, managers, supervisors, etc.

There is one more significant change in prospect; that is, the continued spectacular growth in the group of professional, technical, and kindred workers. The outlook for the next decade is that this will be the fastest growing occupational group—an increase of about 40 per cent in ten years. At the other end of the occupational scale, we anticipate no increase at all in common, unskilled labor. Substantial increases in employment are in prospect for the managerial,

the clerical and sales, and the skilled crafts groups.

In general, the shift is toward occupations requiring more education, training, and experience, and away from occupations requiring less of these qualifications.

In the light of these prospects, the basic problem of the personnel director will be the matching of jobs and workers. The changes in demand for labor will be large and significant; the labor force will be out of balance—heavily weighted with the young and old, and short in prime workers.

Problems for the Personnel Man

Let us turn now to the problems which will develop out of these trends, assuming that this picture will work out in practice. Take the matter of education. The fastest growing occupational group (professional and technical) requires much more education than the average. Data on the educational attainments of this group recently showed that about three-quarters of them had some college education, not necessarily a college degree. In the proprietary and managerial group nearly 30 per cent had some college, and in the clerical and sales group, 22 per cent.

Pressure in recent years is for more young white-collar workers to finish college. This pressure is borne out by the gradually increasing proportion of high school graduates who enter college. The Office of Education has estimated that the college population during the 1960's will be nearly 75 per cent higher than it was in the 1950's. This wave of youngsters is at present in the high schools. It will hit the colleges about 1965, and will continue thereafter for years. Young people reaching college age between 1965 and 1970 will find the competition extremely rough.

Education

The college problem is partly an industry problem and partly a community problem. Personnel men in industry (and in government, for that matter) will be concerned about obtaining enough college graduates to meet the growing demand. At the same time, they are likely to be concerned about the quality of these graduates, about which questions are already being raised. The problem of the employer is whether quality must be sacrificed for quantity in college graduates. The community problem is whether there will be enough college facilities to meet the need—buildings, teachers, laboratories, equipment, etc.

At the other extreme, the labor force contains the large group of semi-skilled, unskilled, service, and farm workers. Between 70 and 80 per cent of the workers in these occupational groups had less than a high school education in 1959. Hence, these are the occupations into which the less educated have been going.

However, in the 1960's these jobs will be less plentiful. Some of these groups are actually shrinking; others will not be gaining very much. Yet among the new young workers entering the labor force during the 1960's, about 7½ million, or approximately 30 per cent, will have less than a high school education.

The problem for the nation is that, despite the improved average educational attainments of the labor force during the 1960's, there may be a decided shortage of job opportunities for workers with a minimum of education. The industry problem is likely to be a surplus of job seekers undereducated for the job openings that will exist.

Training and Retraining

A second area of more intensive interest in the 1960's will be training. The rising tide of young, inexperienced workers will affect industry training programs in a significant way. First, most young people need a period of breaking-in to successful job holding. Most of such training has to take place on the job. Secondly, young people often shop around for a few years before they find work which is congenial. Up to the time they are twenty-five years old, young workers will try out various job opportunities before settling down to a final career. This further intensifies the training problem.

Then there is the correlative of retraining older people within the important industrial and occupational shifts which are in prospect. Many older men and women will become obsolescent in their lifetime occupa-

tions. Jobs which they have been performing for several decades may be eliminated by automation, by shifts in demand, or by other changes in our economy.

Studies which the Bureau of Labor Statistics has made concerning the introduction of automation have shown that some firms can do well in protecting the jobs of older workers. In these cases, a high proportion of both men and women affected by automation were transferred to other jobs within the company, and were retrained where needed. However, for those workers whose companies have not maintained their older work force, the prospect is poor.

Several states have provisions in their laws for workers receiving unemployment compensation to be given the opportunity to take retraining for new jobs. In actual practice, an insignificant number of workers have benefited from such programs. One difficulty is that the unemployment insurance system does not readily lend itself to this kind of a program. Since the employer's tax rate depends on the benefits drawn by his ex-employees, he is not receptive to a four-to-six-month period of training at his expense. The community or the Unemployment Compensation System in general—rather than a specific employer's merit rating account—may have to bear this burden.

Furthermore, many older workers are heads of families, the chief earner in their families. They cannot afford to go without work for long periods of time, even with the unemployment benefits they might receive. Retraining within the company is clearly a responsibility of the employer; but the cost of retraining an unemployed man is more clearly a responsibility of the community.

Unemployment

Still another problem for the community will be the level of unemployment. Young workers have a higher unemployment rate than the rest of the labor force. For example, the average percentage of the civilian labor force unemployed in the year 1959 was 5.5 per cent. For young workers under twenty the rate was 13.2 per cent, and for the age group twenty to twenty-four, it was 8.5 per cent. The two groups together had an unemployment rate about double the overall unemployment rate of the labor force as a whole.

Now in the 1960's, with an increase in proportion of young workers in the labor force, the average unemployment rate for the nation may average higher than at present under similar circumstances. For example, if in 1959 there had been a substantially larger number of young people under twenty-five than there were, the average unemployment rate might have been as high as 6.0 per cent instead of 5.5 per cent.

In other words, with each age group experiencing the same group unemployment rate as before, a rising proportion of young people would push the average rate for the country up. This is one reason why the 1960's may witness somewhat higher unemployment rates than existed in the 1950's.

Another aspect of unemployment is the length and duration of the unemployment of older workers. These workers have comparatively low unemployment rates, but their average duration is higher; they have a more difficult time getting another job. Hence, the continued rise in the proportion of older workers will tend to expand the numbers of workers unemployed for more than twenty-six weeks.

Labor Relations

Finally, to come down still closer to the personnel man's day-to-day activities, we might look briefly at the effect of the 1960's on labor relations. There is time to mention only a few of these. The interests of older workers will be expressed in increasing pressure for seniority within the plant and the firm. Collective bargaining contracts are likely to contain more clauses directed toward this problem.

Furthermore, in view of the technological and geographic shifts taking place in a number of industries, there is likely to be stronger pressure from the workers for the maintenance of job opportunities, such as the right to be trained for new jobs opened up by technological change, and the right to transfer to the new plant which is being set up in some other state.

The influence of young workers will be felt in the form of pressures for lowering the

retirement age of older workers. The original retirement age in the Social Security Act was sixty-five years. Recently the age for women was reduced to sixty-two years. Still more recently, a disability provision was added, providing for retirement on disability at any age. If job opportunities are scarce in any firm or any industry, or in the country as a whole, there are likely to be moves for further reductions in the retirement age and more emphasis upon speedier retirement.

Pressure will be exerted on private pension plans, which are more flexible than the Social Security Act. It is not unusual for a company plan to provide for retirement at sixty, or even below that for workers with maximum length of service. In collective bargaining situations, the younger union members will be voting for lowering the retirement age. This is in contrast to the 1950's when a number of collective bargaining contracts actually raised the retirement age in order to facilitate keeping older workers on the job.

Age and Productivity

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has made a few studies on the subject of productivity and age. In brief, these show that in some occupations the average older worker was at least as efficient as those in the prime age group. In other occupations the average was lower, but only slightly so. Of course, individual performance varied within all of the age groups, so that some older workers performed better, some worse, than their younger counterparts.

For the past decade there has been a growing emphasis on flexible programs of retirement, with some workers retiring earlier and others being kept on well beyond age 65. However, these flexible programs have run up against the problem of the relationship of productivity to age. There are relatively few satisfactory measures of declining worker efficiency; and unless some better gauges are found, the flexible programs are likely to be handicapped.

In closing on the general subject of problems of the 1960's, I might mention legislation on discrimination. I am referring to discrimination by age. A number of states have actually passed laws forbidding discrimination against older workers in job opportunities. These have not been in operation long enough to determine yet whether they will have much effect. However, personnel directors, in wrestling with the employment problems of the young and the old, will have to be concerned with the question of legislation on this subject.

What of the Future?

The third section of this paper concerns the opportunities of the 1960's. There will be many problems, as we have seen. But there is another, brighter side to the picture.

In the first place, a flood of young workers constitutes a sound basis for industrial expansion. Man for man, the young workers of today are far better educated than their fathers were. Despite all the shortcomings attributed to our educational system, we have a well-educated labor force. Furthermore, young workers are willing and eager to man new industries. They are not held in their jobs by seniority, by pension rights, by union membership, by home ownership, etc.

In addition, young workers have geographic mobility. In the distressed areas in this country there is nearly always an excess supply of older workers. This is because the young people have left for opportunities elsewhere. So these young workers will furnish an element of flexibility and adaptability in the nation's labor force that should facilitate industrial and technological change.

Secondly, the manpower outlook of the 1960's can have an important bearing on the rate of economic growth of the United States. One factor working in this direction could be a rising proportion of workers in relation to the population. A nation's standard of living depends in part upon the ratio of workers to non-workers (dependents and military).

During the 1950's this factor worked against a rising standard of living; that is, from 1947 to 1959, the number of non-workers grew faster than the civilian labor force. Hence, each worker was supporting a larger number of persons, directly or indirectly. For the 1960's the outlook is for a mild reversal of this trend; that is, the civilian labor force bids fair to grow some-

what more rapidly than the total population. Hence, there would be more producers proportionately. Of course, this is dependent upon the maintenance of a high level of employment. The unemployed are also non-producers when they are out of work.

The rate of economic growth depends also upon the rate of increasing output per man hour. Since World War II, the annual rate for the private economy as a whole has averaged almost 3.5 per cent. The performance of the 1960's on this point will be vitally important for the nation.

On any reasonable trend of economic growth during the 1960's, the nation could look forward to a rise of about 50 per cent in the gross national product by the year 1970—that is, from something like $500 billion to $750 billion.

Of course, none of this is inevitable. If we do not succeed in fitting our unbalanced labor force into the developing job opportunities, then the rate of economic growth may not move that fast. Personnel men will constitute an important factor in determining the final outcome.

On Keeping the Pot Boiling . . .

Because any organization, once it becomes successful, is apt to lose its original drive and vision, I've suggested that we have a "vice president in charge of revolution." He'd be one man not responsible for any operations. He'd stand to one side, with whatever staff he needed, to pick holes in whatever we were doing and remind us of our basic philosophy, our fundamental concepts. His job would be to stir up everything and everybody, to criticize and challenge everything being done—objectives, methods, programs, results. He'd keep us so discontented with the status quo there'd never be any doubt of our desire to seek new ways to meet people's needs. He'd keep us on the right track.—Murray Lincoln, quoted in *The American Federationist,* January, 1961.

Perhaps it would be useful to have professional "kibitzers," discreetly vocal in their classified way, stationed at key points in our governmental process. We would not need too many, for their species abounds outside government, but they might be useful at the stage just preceding decisions to stop and ask, "Well, what are the other ways in which this thing could be done?"—Philip E. Mosely. Excerpt from lecture at dedication of the Brookings Institution's new Center for Advanced Study, Washington, D. C.

Who Lost April, 1959?

See page 203

Nation-wide Competition and Professional Pay

Howard Ferguson

Conclusions of a survey made to determine the effect of interstate competition on professional pay levels.

MUCH EMPHASIS has been placed on wage surveys as a basis for review and adjustment of pay levels, both in government and in industry. The techniques applicable to such surveys have been well developed for the more common classes of lower ranking jobs, particularly at starting levels where comparison is easiest.

The wage surveys have shown sharp variations among different localities, some of which are readily identifiable as regional in character. These data, substantiated by statistics on regional differences in cost of living, have received common acceptance in the establishment of pay levels appropriate to the locality or region.

For occupations where comparative data are not readily available and for jobs at advanced levels where it is impractical to establish a sufficiently accurate basis for comparison, the most common approach is to apply differentials to the established pay levels for those jobs that can be based upon the local wage data. Such differentials are determined either through a point-rating plan of evaluation or by judgments based upon similar considerations.

A disconcerting factor in the question of appropriate pay levels is the necessity for recognizing different employment market areas in different occupations. Market areas in some occupations are highly localized. For other occupations these markets have a greater spread that may be state-wide or regional. Still others have expanded to the point where they may be regarded as nation-wide. Increasing mobility of the population, particularly among professional and semi-professional people, is contributing to wider and wider employment market areas. Shortages in the supply of many of the professional skills underlie both the mobility and the spreading of employment market areas.

Survey Uncovers Deviations in Pay Rates

In connection with a recent review of pay levels in the service of the State of Maine, J. L. Jacobs & Company conducted a special study to evaluate the extent to which the pay levels for professional personnel indicate the existence of a broad employment market area for such personnel.

As a basis for this study, questionnaires were sent to all states with central personnel agencies and to the merit system councils in most of the other states. Replies were received from thirty-three states and the District of Columbia, which comprised an adequate sampling of geographic and economic areas. Although some of the data proved to be unsuitable for statistical treatment, there were sound data on beginning levels in various professions and semi-professional or technical occupations and on other non-professional classes selected as benchmarks to measure the comparative levels of pay in the strictly local employment market areas.

Analysis of the pay levels for the classes drawn from the local employment markets was made by averaging, for the several classes in this category in each of the states, the percentage deviations from the median of the rates for all the states. The range of the state averages of these deviations was from minus 18 per cent in Georgia to plus 42 per cent in California. The quartiles were minus 8 per cent and plus 13 per cent, which is an average deviation of 10½ per cent.

When the states are placed into three equal groups, representing the low-pay states, the average-pay states, and the high-pay states, the median of the rates in the low-pay states is 10 per cent below the median of the average states and the median of the high-pay states is 14 per cent above

that of the average states. The median for the average-pay states is the same as the median for all the states.

The analysis of the professional pay levels was concentrated on the entrance levels for trained but inexperienced employees in 27 occupations. Using the groupings of states based on their local employment pay levels, it was found that the range of the pay deviations in the professional and technical occupations, taken as a whole, is much narrower than that of the benchmark classes with localized employment markets. For the professional and technical occupations, the median of rates in the low-pay states was only 3 per cent below the median for all the states. The median for the average-pay states was only 1 per cent below the all-state median. The median for the high-pay states was 8 per cent above the all-state median.

The very small 2 per cent difference in the medians for the low-pay states and the average-pay states on these professional and technical jobs, as compared with the 10 per cent difference in the medians of local employment pay rates, clearly indicates that local employment pay levels have little influence on the professional and technical pay rates in these cases.

Effects of Interstate Competition

The data for the high-pay states are subject to varying interpretations. One conclusion that might be drawn is that these states deliberately set their rates above those of most other states to assure an adequate supply of trained personnel. It also seems probable that they have assumed a necessity for proportionately high pay rates because of the high rates in occupations whose employment market area is local.

The conclusion to be drawn from the foregoing is that competition among the states for college graduates and other technically trained personnel is strong enough to set up a common market value on a nationwide basis. The states with low pay rates for employees secured from the local employment market area have been forced to raise the levels for professional and technical personnel in order to compete for them in the broader employment market. This has practically wiped out the regional and other area differentials among the majority of the states in these categories of employment.

These influences have not, however, affected the rates of the high-pay states to the same degree, although the average and low-pay states have pulled up to levels that leave the high-pay states with a much smaller differential for these classes than for the classes drawn entirely from local employment markets.

All of the states replying to the questionnaire indicated that at least some of the professional and technical classes are open to non-residents or can be opened to them if there are insufficient local applicants. Ten states and the District of Columbia—one-third of the sample—indicated that all of the beginning level professional and technical classes on which they reported are open to non-residents. Several other states indicated only a few exceptions to this rule.

In view of the strong historical precedent for local residence requirements in state employment, the opening of jobs to non-residents is itself a clear indication of interstate competition for employees in these classes.

Occupational Differences in Competition

It is clear that interstate competition has strongly influenced professional and technical pay levels and has sharply decreased the differentials paid among the different states. As applied to individual occupations, it can be concluded that the extent to which the differentials have narrowed is a measure of the effect of interstate competition on that particular occupation.

Based upon this assumption, the data for the several occupations reviewed have been arranged in Table I in the order of the average of the deviation of the quartiles from the median. The narrow deviations represent a strong degree of conformity to a common pay level, which indicates a broad, nation-wide employment market.

This evidence can be tested by known facts with respect to two occupations at opposite ends of the scale. Any employer seeking engineering graduates is aware of the broad competition for engineering stu-

TABLE I

SUMMARY AND ANALYSIS OF STATE HIRING SALARIES FOR PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL PERSONNEL AT THE BEGINNING PROFESSIONAL LEVEL[a]

		Monthly Hiring Rates					Per Cent Deviation from Median	
Occupation	*States Reported*	*Lowest*	*First Quartile*	*Median*	*Third Quartile*	*Highest*	*First Quartile*	*Third Quartile*
Forester	15	$325	$379	$386	$397	$436	— 2	+ 3
Civil Engineer	26	334	425	442	452	530	— 4	+ 2
Sanitary Engineer	25	350	420	445	451	530	— 6	+ 1
Biologist	22	308	360	376	385	428	— 4	+ 3
Dental Hygienist[b]	22	248	273	292	300	350	— 6	+ 3
Nursing School Instructor	8	325	338	345	378	416	— 2	+ 9
Mechanical Engineer	9	365	408	437	453	530	— 7	+ 4
Agriculturist	13	310	341	360	384	468	— 5	+ 7
Social Worker	25	255	296	312	338	395	— 5	+ 8
Medical Technologist[b]	21	260	300	320	342	458	— 6	+ 7
Veterinarian (DVM)	23	333	460	490	526	698	— 6	+ 7
Entomologist	16	278	355	380	405	428	— 4	+10
Psychologist (MA)	17	350	375	390	428	461	— 4	+10
Bacteriologist	24	280	326	361	377	416	—10	+ 4
Nurse (RN)	30	250	275	292	316	395	— 6	+ 8
Occupational Therapist	24	275	320	352	371	436	— 9	+ 5
Personnel Technician	20	300	344	360	384	458	— 7	+ 7
Planner (MS or MA)	9	432	445	487	516	570	— 9	+ 6
Accountant	27	278	320	345	375	436	— 7	+ 9
Statistician	30	275	315	344	370	458	— 8	+ 8
Psychiatric Social Worker (MS)	20	325	360	385	416	500	— 8	+ 8
Dentist (DDS)	26	460	565	635	675	821	—11	+ 6
Sanitarian	25	256	315	344	370	450	— 9	+ 8
Chemist	29	278	325	362	393	436	—10	+ 9
School Teacher	18	265	335	346	400	481	— 3	+16
Pharmacist (Registered)	21	325	364	420	450	676	—13	+ 7
Attorney (LLB)	18	362	420	445	520	730	— 6	+17
Overall average of benchmark classes with local employment markets							— 8	+13

[a] BA or BS, except as noted.
[b] Sub-professional occupations requiring certificates.

dents graduating from college. This is reflected in small first and third quartile deviations from the median of minus 4 per cent and plus 2 per cent, respectively, or an average deviation of 3 per cent.

The small deviations for engineers are in dramatic contrast to the wide deviations in attorney's pay rates, which are minus 6 per cent and plus 17 per cent for the first and third quartiles, respectively, or an average deviation of 11½ per cent. Attorneys are far less mobile than individuals in some of the other occupations. It is well known that attorneys are seldom, if ever, appointed to state jobs without being local residents. Often there is also a political requirement. In such a situation, no one would expect any except local considerations to affect the pay level. This is confirmed in the analysis by the fact that the average deviation from the median is even greater for the attorneys than it is for the classes drawn from the non-professional, local employment market.

The small average deviation for engineers'

pay reflects the effect of a nation-wide employment market, and the large average deviation for attorneys reflects the dominant local influence on their pay levels. This is proof of the thesis that the average deviation is some measure of the breadth of the employment market. To the extent that this thesis is valid, the arrangement of occupations in the table is in the order of decreasing breadth of their respective employment markets.

Pay Levels for Various Occupations

The actual rates shown in Table I give a measure of the differentials to be found among various occupations. In general, the rates are for positions requiring a college degree or qualifying certificate, except as noted in the table.

There is one weakness, however, in these data for direct use in determining appropriate wage levels for some of the occupations. Most of the states allow the substitution of experience for formal education. In the cases of accountant, statistician, or other occupations where the title has not attained a strong measure of restriction to professional use, such substitution may be common in many of the states.

Although the pay rates used are those that apply to classes of employment which a college graduate may enter without experience, the data did not disclose the extent to which positions in these classes are filled by substitution of experience for education.

Summary of Conclusions

The study revealed that the hiring rates of different states for trained but inexperienced professional and technical personnel fall into a much narrower range than the pay rates for classes of employees drawn entirely from local employment markets. This reflects the influence of interstate competition for and the mobility of trained professional and technical personnel.

To meet this competition, the states with comparatively low pay levels for employees taken from the local employment markets have been forced by circumstances to raise their pay rates for professional and technical personnel. Now there is very little difference between the professional and technical pay rates in the low pay states and in those that have average pay levels for their local employment. The states that have high pay levels for local employment still maintain a substantial differential over the other states in their professional and technical employment, but not as much of a differential as for local market employment.

In individual occupations the average deviations of the quartile rates from the medians for all the states can be taken as a measure of the extent to which these rates have been affected by interstate competition. Where the average deviation is small, the competition is in a broad market. Where the average deviation is large, interstate competition is not much of a factor and rates can be set on a local basis.

If You Would Have Better Bobbies . . .

The need in Britain's police services is to attract more men, and to ensure that recruits are of the high quality that has always given British policemen a special and dignified status in the community at large. The case for increases in pay at or above the level now recommended is overwhelming; but the public service should get into the habit of adjusting pay rates more flexibly in accord with obvious market needs, and get out of the habit of enslavement to rigid formulae laid down by commissions whose reports very quickly become out of date.—From "Notes of the Week," *The Economist*, November 26, 1960.

A Manpower Utilization Quiz

Lew Fay

What changes would you make in this procedure to improve it and also get maximum results at less cost to Utopia City?

As AN EXPERIMENT, the following "quiz" was presented at a recent meeting of the author with his Personnel Advisory Council, a group composed of equal representation from employee organizations and management. Our presentation had some of the aspects of the problem-solving, take-it-yourself test often found in popular magazines. The underlying theme of our "case history" was proper manpower utilization in a hypothetical medical examination program in "Utopia City."

The reaction and participation of the group were just what we had hoped for. The experiment was well received and touched off some lively discussion.

If you would like to try your hand at guessing what's wrong with "Utopia City's" procedure, read on! Then check the "Solution" at the end of the article.

A Medical Examination Program

The Civil Service Commission of Utopia City, population 1,000,000, requires successful passage of a medical examination as a prerequisite to appointment to a position with the city. The Commission also requires periodic re-examination of the city's 10,000 permanent employees. These examinations are scheduled on a regular cycle of one, two, or three years, depending upon the type of work done by the employee.

The medical examination is given by a special unit established exclusively for that purpose. The staffing of this unit and annual salaries for the staff are as follows:

2 Examining Physicians	$14,400 each
2 Registered Nurses	5,400 each
1 Junior Typist	3,300 each

During the current year, 5,500 examinations were completed; 4,000 of these were of applicants for city positions and 1,500 were present city employees. In order to maintain the proper cycle of examinations of employees, it is necessary to increase the number of examinations by approximately 2,000 per year. Because of depressed economic conditions in the city, it is anticipated that no additional funds will be made available to the department.

Present Procedure

The procedure in conducting the examination in the medical examining unit is as follows:

Applicants and employees are notified by the department certification unit of their appointments with the Examining Physician. The certification unit provides the medical examining unit with a list of appointments scheduled daily.

As individuals arrive for their scheduled appointments, they are greeted by the Junior Typist who types each name, address, and other identifying data, on a combination medical history and examination report form. The individual then answers the questions on the medical history part of the form.

Following this, (1) one of the nurses weighs and measures the person and assigns him to an examination room. (2) The Examining Physician then conducts the physical examination which requires 40 minutes per person examined. This time is broken down as follows (these time allowances are considered reasonable for the functions indicated):

Reviewing and annotating the examinee's medical history	10 min.
Conducting near and distant vision eye chart tests and a simple audiometer test	5 min.

Routine examination of head, chest, abdomen, pelvis, and extremities .... 15 min.
Taking blood and urine samples. 5 min.
Recording findings .... 5 min.

(3) The reports are then handed to the nurse who types the final report for the doctor's signature and forwarding to the certification unit.

The Question

What shifting of duties under Nos. 1, 2, and 3 above would result in a better use of manpower, reduce the total manpower requirements, and permit the handling of the workload?

Solution

1. Weighing and measuring should be done by the typist instead of a registered nurse.

2. Vision and audiometer tests, and the taking of blood and urine samples, should be done by a registered nurse rather than a physician.

3. Typist should type reports instead of a registered nurse.

If these changes are made, the examining time for each physician for each person will be reduced from 40 minutes to 30 minutes, one registered nurse can be replaced by a junior typist, and the objective of increasing the number of medical examinations by 2,000 per year can be accomplished, without additional cost.

Do Unto the Government Service . . .

I have watched with a great deal of interest and considerable dismay the proliferation of books and articles on those classic experiments conducted at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company from 1927 to 1932. No one can deny the impact these studies have had on the field of management. As one with a considerable background of training in science, however, I am astonished at what has happened to the findings at Hawthorne. In a nutshell, the researchers there rediscovered a principle enunciated over 1900 years ago by Jesus Christ and generally known to children as well as the rest of us as the Golden Rule. What the "experts" have done with these experimental findings is to wear them to shreds. What they should have been doing is to have attempted their duplication or reproduction to ascertain by experiment or any other means the validity of the conclusions. Following this, they might well have addressed themselves to the universal application of such principles in the government service. What they have done instead is merely to argue over all the possible interpretations of results—which is certainly the most unscientific thing they could have done. —William R. Van Dersal, "Some Problems in Supervision in the Federal Government," paper presented at the Regional Personnel Management Conference, May, 1960. *Visitor,* June, 1960.

What Happened to October, 1959?

See page 203

personnel opinions

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS of personnel policy and practice seldom yield "cut-and-dried" answers. The editors have posed the question below to several persons representing different points of view to give readers guidelines in formulating their own policies.

THE QUESTION

"What are the tangible earmarks of being a 'professional' in the public personnel field and how can they be evaluated?"

Says DAVID M. WILKISON . . .

Administrative Assistant, Metropolitan Dade County Public Works Department, Miami

Whatever the intrinsic qualities of any given sort of work which contribute to its establishment as a bona fide profession, its status is not assured until those outside the field consider it to be a profession. The field of personnel administration does not seem to enjoy this esteem.

In order that one may bask in the glory of membership in a recognized profession, there are several specific criteria which apparently must be met. Perhaps the basic one is that of an academic preparation identified closely with the profession. Psychology currently occupies this role, although its relevance may be debatable.

Unlike such recognized professions as law, public accountancy, and medicine, the college degrees considered applicable for personnel work are varied. The field is looked upon as fair game by many an uncertain social science and humanities graduate, who see it as respectable administrative work that can be handled by anyone who "likes people." And who can say they're wrong?

Public personnel work could be more strongly identified as part of a broader profession of public administration, conceivably, if it were pushed as such in the many universities granting degrees in public and business administration. Until personnel work requires a more definite academic background, its stature as a profession will not be impressive.

Another obvious aspect of professionalism is certification, licensing, or a strong professional association. Acknowledged professions all seem to have a restrictive certification which enhances their stature, controls the practice, and is an assurance of competence.

In the governmental field, the city managers are possessed of an association which is one of the primary sources of job information and advancement in their field. With a relatively small number of practitioners, and a high rate of movement by the members, the International City Managers' Association has become a strong impetus to professionalization.

Our own Public Personnel Association is unable to exert the same cohesive influence for at least one reason: success in public personnel work is typically achieved by advancement and responsibility within a single agency. Being incorporated in the merit systems they administer, personnel positions are not usually recruited for from outside, which reduces the job-clearinghouse service of the Association.

An unfortunate attribute of the status of a profession is the compensation which the members merit. Compared to the recognized professions, that of personnel administration commands very modest wages. Whether in-

creased earning power is a result of professionalization or whether it is a causal factor toward greater professionalization is not certain, but there appears to be a definite relationship between the two.

Our work may require the skill of a physician, the knowledge of a lawyer, and the dedication of a clergyman, but unless these practical requirements can be obviated, it will continue to fall short of being an acknowledged profession.

Says LILLIAN D. LONG . . .

Director, Professional Examination Service, New York City

For a very long time there were just three learned professions—theology, law, and medicine, each of them ancient and revered. We view them now, rich in an accumulation of thousands of years of wisdom and respect, and it is a temptation to judge the infant efforts of young imitators by the mature achievements of their models. In such a comparison, the dignity and prestige of these three professions tend to make young vocational aspirants to professionalization appear a shade presumptuous, a shade eager. Too anxious a desire to acquire outward and visible signs bespeaks too great indifference to the inward and spiritual grace that endows these signs with meaning.

Can a group of people, in fact, seek to develop a profession? Does not a profession grow from inward necessity? Isn't a profession a response to a human need, to the discovery and arrangement of knowledge? Can a profession be brought into existence by intention any more than happiness can be achieved by pursuit? Does not asking the question, "Is the field of public personnel administration sufficiently mature to be considered a 'profession'?", reveal the answer? The situation is analogous to asking whether the water is deep. If you have to ask, it's too deep.

I cannot brush away these and other doubts that I have had as I have thought about the question that has been posed. But I conclude that a part of my difficulty comes from comparing an infant with an adult. Medicine, law, and theology started young, too, and perhaps no less humbly. We may be repeating their histories, but because of the examples they have set, it may be possible to compress our recapitulation into a far briefer period of time.

It must be acknowledged of the learned professions that so well have their members behaved (in general) and so great have been their rewards (both taxable and non-taxable) that it is not only public personnel administration that seeks to achieve professional status; the fact is, that there is scarcely an occupation that does not share this aspiration. Medicine, law, and theology have set the standard and we measure ourselves against them.

Many lists of the distinguishing characteristics of a profession are available (cf., e.g., William J. Goode, "Encroachment, Charlatanism, and the Emerging Profession: Psychology, Sociology, and Medicine," *American Sociological Review,* December, 1960). These include, among other attributes, service orientation, the existence of a systematic body of abstract knowledge, community sanction, a regulative code of ethics, a professional culture, the setting of standards of training and education by the profession, social and economic gains, freedom from lay evaluation and control, and, interestingly, a degree of satisfaction on the part of the members of the profession with their chosen work, so that they "do not care to leave it." Every person reading such a list will have his own opinion as to the relative importance of the various characteristics, and, in all probability, public personnel administrators would differ widely in rating their field on these traits.

In my view, the greatest shortcoming of public personnel administration exists with respect to the trait that is the most basic requirement of a profession—namely, the existence of a systematic body of abstract knowledge. The literature abounds in descriptions of the practices of public personnel administration but this does not satisfy the criterion.

For the most part, the basic knowledge underlying these practices, insofar as it exists, derives from other professions or sciences—psychology, for example, or sociology. The remedy for this deficiency is to be sought in an increased orientation

toward research in public personnel administration—specifically experimental research that seeks the underlying factors in the problems with which public personnel administration deals and that evaluates objectively the methods it uses.

Whether public personnel administration is a profession, however, is of less importance than whether public personnel administrators conduct themselves professionally. Perhaps the greatest achievement of the professions is to have set a pattern of conduct that has become a prototype. To the extent that public personnel administration can elevate its standards of training and practice, can strengthen its service to the public, can support an organization that represents its interests effectively, enhances the reputation of its members and increases the value of their work, to that extent public personnel administration will possess professional qualities.

The Public Personnel Association provides leadership toward all of these goals. The level of aspiration of its members is high, and professional behavior may precede membership in a profession. Francis Bacon, commenting on the relationship of a man to his profession, provides a directive toward professionalization. "I hold every man a debtor to his profession; from the which as men of course do seek to receive countenance and profit, so ought they of duty to endeavour themselves, by way of amends, to be a help and ornament thereunto." From such a reciprocal relationship a profession of public personnel administration can evolve.

Says LOUIS J. KROEGER . . .

Member, California State Personnel Board, and Executive Vice President, Griffenhagen-Kroeger, Inc., San Francisco

In one connotation, a "professional" is a skilled practitioner in a given field, as distinguished from the amateur. In that sense a paid ball player is a professional, but his sport is not a profession. In the other connotation, a "professional" is a member of a recognized profession.

In my opinion, public personnel administration cannot be said to be a profession in the same sense that medicine or law or engineering are so recognized. Our colleagues range from the commissioners and administrators concerned with broad policy and management, who do not necessarily have training or prior experience, through the administrators who have advanced from the technical ranks; and on to the specialists, some of whom are expert in techniques, while others specialize mainly in the interpretation and application of rules and procedures.

Moreover, there is little really fundamental to distinguish personnel administration in the public service from that in the business world. Both deal with the human elements involved in producing a result, whether the result is a public service or the making or sale of a product. Both have their administrative and procedural aspects. They differ in emphasis, because public personnel administration relies less on bargaining and more on law, but that difference has been narrowing—from both sides—and will continue to do so.

Whether we consider the entire personnel field or just that of the public service, we lack many of the accepted earmarks of a standard profession. We lack a standard methodology, we lack a universal terminology, and we lack widely accepted basic principles and practices. We do not have a single organization acknowledged as the representative of the group. We do not have an accepted statement of ethical standards. We do not even have a proper noun to name our calling.

In time we may attain the professional standing these criteria suggest, but this is a goal to be reached gradually by the finding of a greater community of interest among those in the field. It cannot be attained by the declaration of some of us that we are now a profession.

By that I do not suggest that public personnel administration should not establish some criteria and marks of professional recognition for those who are skilled in the field. This means defining the content of an acceptable modern personnel program, the training or preparation necessary to participate in that program with technical or administrative effectiveness, and the ethical

standards which distinguish an effective program from one which merely bears the name.

It should be a phased operation, with first recognition given to positions calling for specific techniques, for which the required training and experience is clear cut. The next most logical step would be to recognize those having more generalized technical and administrative responsibility. The third step would include the professional administrator. Before that point is reached, however, we should all consider whether the professional administrator is a professional in personnel or in administration.

I hope no one regards all this as the forerunner of governmental registration or licensing. It would be unwise, therefore, to couple plans for professional recognition with a "grandfather clause" automatically qualifying those who have occupied positions in the field without necessarily having demonstrated the attainments we wish to recognize.

The immediate value of recognized professional standing should be to establish the practitioner's pride in his calling; and to establish norms and evidences of conforming to them by which the individual can be adjudged qualified for a specialized position.

There should be an even greater benefit to the public. Professional recognition, I would hope, would require that a practitioner shift his attention from the thwarting of spoilsmen by restrictions over to the fashioning of administrative and technical means to attract and hold public servants of outstanding quality.

Says JAMES M. MITCHELL . . .

Director, The Brookings Institution, Washington, D. C.

It seems to me that no one can seriously debate the desirability of increasing the required qualifications and the standards of performance of public personnel administrators and specialists. They are playing a more important role in our society than ever before in our history. All available evidence points to a continuation of this trend. They are having a marked effect on the quality of the public services upon which democracy depends.

The question of whether personnel administrators should be called professional, however, raises another issue. The word *professional* is usually used to describe an activity that requires college graduation as a minimum for effective performance; a sizeable body of knowledge that can be taught only to people with college training; a code of ethics covering the behavior of its members; and a system of examinations administered by representatives of the public, for entrance into the practice of the profession.

Serious questions can be raised as to whether the field of public personnel administration qualifies on all these counts. The body of knowledge is growing and will continue to grow as the social sciences come into their own, but it is clearly not as broad or as deep as that required in the established professions. There are ethical standards that should certainly be followed by every personnel man, but there is nothing comparable to the doctor's Hippocratic oath.

On the average, a college trained person will do a better job than one not so trained, but it is possible to be an excellent personnel man without having ever gone to college. It would probably be in the public interest if all "personnel administrators" had to be licensed before they could practice their activity, but I do not think anyone would seriously claim at this time that a licensing system would be feasible in Canada or the United States.

In approaching the problem of securing higher standards in the public personnel field, every effort should be made to avoid the mistake that at least one other "profession" has made—namely, claiming that we are a profession because we say we are. This is laughable, in a sense, but it has serious consequences in terms of the true progress of a developing field.

If one is required to establish "professional standards," it would be far better for the membership organization to (1) recommend high but reasonable qualification standards that can be used in job specifications to be adopted by public jurisdictions for personnel people, (2) establish a high

quality for the conferences and publications in the field, and (3) give real recognition through as many devices as possible for good work done in personnel administration.

It should also be kept in mind that there are substantial disadvantages to the "professional training" required by the older professions. Many people, both in and outside of the professions, are beginning to be aware of these. An early decision is required in the universities for a major in the field, and very few electives are possible thereafter. This, in turn, means that these students are not getting the broad background in the arts, humanities, and sciences that is so badly needed on the part of our leadership today.

Narrow professional training results in a lack of flexibility that handicaps rather than aids excellent performance in later years. Thoughtful people in the "professions" are beginning to press for less specialization rather than more, and therefore less "professionalization" in their training.

As one considers this problem, the basic values in a democratic society must be considered. Should we think primarily in terms of greater recognition and higher pay as our goals in the personnel field? I am confident that most personnel people would reply with an unqualified "No." Or should we think primarily in terms of better performance on the part of personnel administrators and technicians? I am certain that most people in the personnel field would reply in the affirmative.

Let us work for higher standards. Let us give recognition for work well done. Let us be intolerant of dishonesty, poor work, and lack of devotion to the merit system. But above all, let us place at the top of our scale of values the public interest.

Says C. R. PATTERSON . . .

Director of Operations, Civil Service Commission of Canada, Ottawa

Is today's public personnel man the "pivot man" to whom management and man alike turn because of his demonstrated knowledge, his capacities—including the capacity for human understanding—his objectivity and resistance to unwonted pressures, and his willingness to go the extra mile in the service of the state? Or is he the purveyor of the regulation and the administrative procedure, the watchdog of jealously guarded personnel privileges, the dogmatic arbiter of classification and selection?

If he is the former, he is approaching the realm of professionalism. The professional is generally regarded as an individual who, possessed of a fund of organized knowledge, is prepared to extend himself beyond the demands of normal callings—first for the benefit of mankind, and only incidentally for self-gain.

There are obvious characteristics which mark the professional, and these must be evaluated in the individual who is being considered for appointment to or promotion within a professional field. The greatest danger in trying so to do, however, is the temptation to play the "father image" leading to failure to fully appreciate the significance of the characteristics of the potential public personnel "professional."

Knowledge is a prerequisite of professional activity, but it cannot be assessed within narrow limits. The skilled factory foreman may make as great a contribution in the trades areas as will the test technician fresh from the department of psychology, as each meshes his skills with the problems and procedures of the personnel task. Nevertheless, at some stage of development both will be required to have attained a degree of sophistication in the overall philosophy and practice of personnel administration or fail to achieve a professional standard of performance.

Even greater than the need for knowledge in the professional is the thirst for knowledge. Beware of the man who does not read and of the man who has a severely restricted range of interests, for neither can offer the background needed to develop the required insights for productive, forward-looking personnel action.

Reading and a wide range of interests are both necessary factors that depend highly upon capacity—the intellectual depth required to foster analytical acuity, breadth of concept, balance of judgment, and appreciation of quality. From this capacity should spring that life force of every pro-

fessional: creativity—the overwhelming desire to modify, to change, to develop, to invent, but, above all, to improve the tools, techniques, and processes with and by which the job is done.

Capacity itself can be modified and indeed rendered either highly effective or professionally useless by the tenets of the individual. The professional maintains socially desirable standards of behaviour, has an abiding respect for the dignity of man, a faith in man's potential, and a desire to assist it to its greatest fulfilment. Cynicism, lack of interest, impatience with and intolerance of humanity are not only factors to discover and avoid but, if necessary, to remove from the personnel role in administration, along with the individual concerned.

Citizenship has been called a *sine qua non* of professionalism. However, it must not be judged only in terms of community activity and other public demonstrations of good will and fellowship. Much good citizenship—sometimes more authentic citizenship—is shown quietly in the work area through a multitude of situations where stresses are eased by a modest, unobtrusive helping hand.

Presuming that people with these qualifications are discovered, it is then the responsibility of the present "professional" to create opportunities for these people and in turn fulfil themselves professionally. Programs must be forward looking and clearly defined. The individual's task must be delineated clearly. Adequate opportunity for the use of skills and imagination must be provided, and finally, every opportunity should be taken to encourage participation in professional groups, whether within the organization or outside; and if outside, at the local, national, and international levels. Library and research facilities must be made available and guidance should be readily provided by the personnel program leaders.

This could lead to the evolution of the "professional" in the public personnel field. However, no matter what name we may choose for our occupation or calling, it will be the public judgment of our capacity and effectiveness that shall, in the final instance, label us "professional" or otherwise.

Resting On One's Morals . . .

For an executive, the chief crises are moral. Since his job is so rarely impersonal, his principal problems are what he does about people. He may have started out as a master craftsman, teacher, or production expert, but as an executive he is daily putting into action plans for people to carry out, which will in turn affect other people. The criteria that guide his actions—his morals, in short—are therefore the most important features of his term of service as an executive. He is continuously on the radarscope of public judgment.—Louis William Norris in "Moral Hazards of an Executive," *Harvard Business Review*, September-October, 1960.

the bookshelf

Presidential Transitions. By Laurin L. Henry. The Brookings Institution, 1775 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 6, D. C., 1960. xviii, 775 pp. $7.50.

Reviewed by

LYNTON K. CALDWELL

Director, Institute of Training for Public Service Indiana University

This substantial volume describes four twentieth-century change-overs in party control of the American presidency. Under the leadership of Paul T. David and George A. Graham, the book is seventh of a series concerning the electoral and governing processes published by The Brookings Institution.

Divided into six parts, the first states the problems created by presidential transitions and outlines the author's approach to their study. Parts Two through Five describe the Taft-Wilson transition of 1912-13, the Wilson-Harding transition of 1920-21, the Hoover-Roosevelt transition of 1932-33, and the Truman-Eisenhower transition of 1952-53.

The author has selected these examples, characterized by change of party control, ". . . because they seem to raise the sharpest problems of leadership, continuity, and institutional adjustment." These are, therefore, the transitions that most clearly affect the people and practices which combine to form the federal civil service. In Part Six the author analyzes the problems of transition revealed in the preceding chapters of the book and advances some suggestions for easing presidential transitions in the future.

Presidential Transitions is essentially a descriptive study and, although it contains some analysis of the problems and prospects of presidential change-over, does not develop a theory or propose a philosophy of governmental change. This is not to suggest that the book should have been concerned with broader theoretical and constitutional considerations. It is enough that the author has accomplished his stated objective and produced a solid historical account of the most significant presidential transitions in the twentieth century prior to the present time.

Although *Presidential Transitions* is not a philosophic book, it nevertheless provides substance for some philosophic considerations concerning the relationship between the political processes and the public bureaucracy. The political change-overs that produced the presidential transitions described in this book were manifestations of trends in American society that also produced the expanding federal bureacracy, the "merit system" of public employment, and professionalized public personnel administration.

Trends that reshape political parties and ideologies and change the character of government are of particular interest to the social historian. The politician, the public administrator, and public office holder must somehow cope with the immediate events and personalities that are the substance of these trends; and, as social forces are seldom altogether consistent one with another, the persons involved in situations of change and tension must make the best adjustment they can amidst "the conditions that prevail." To the public personnel officer, the impact of immediate events must be a first concern, particularly when these events give rise to conflicting changes in social values, goals, and methods that in a significant degree affect the environment of government employment.

For the public personnel officer, a change of government or of administrative command is one of the events that reshapes his working environment and hence heightens organizational tensions; for the federal personnel officer, a presidential transition is a change of this order. It is inevitable that in

a governmental system structured around the central figure of the President as chief of state and holder of the executive power, a change of incumbents in the presidential office inevitably entails change in the environment of personnel administration.

This change may be massive, as it has been on several occasions in United States history. It may be relatively minor. In some measure every presidential transition always brings problems of personnel administration at the highest levels of government and frequently extends down into the administrative structure.

A change of command at the apex of the administrative hierarchy of government heightens tensions throughout the structure. If the change is massive and far reaching, the tensions induced may exceed those required for administrative vitality and may create rigidity and blocking within the operations of the administrative system. Where periodic elections make political change a recurring phenomenon, a cyclical readjustment becomes necessary. Personnel administration, if it is fully effective, must take this into account and plan within the limitations imposed by law, available resources, and uncertainty.

But this assertion requires clarification in order to make sense. For example, what is the model or concept of the personnel system that must adjust to change if it is to be fully effective? Must it by law and practice be ready to accede fully to the wishes of every new administration? Must it be preposed to defend the stability and continuity of the public service by building defenses against political aggression? To what degree, where, and how must the system governing public employment provide for the changes implicit in a system of periodic elections and political change?

The significance of Laurin Henry's book to the student and practitioner of public personnel administration relates directly to these questions. The book does not, of course, attempt to answer them. By implication it makes two points. The first, and I suppose generally accepted, point is that public personnel administration cannot be insulated from the changes of personalities and policies resulting from the normal operation of the American electoral system. Henry's examination of four of the major transitions in the presidential office during the past half-century illustrates why the impact of change cannot and, to some extent, should not be avoided.

The second point is that no generally accepted theory or formula for adjusting the upper levels of the American federal personnel system to the periodic transitions of presidential government has as yet become established. The Constitution of the United States provides neither for a personnel system nor for political party control. Because policy differences between the major political parties have in most respects been matters of degree rather than direction, and because there have been many alternatives to public employment in the American economy, the tensions induced by presidential changes have not been as great as would be expected if pronounced ideological differences occurred. Nevertheless, the Hoover-to-Roosevelt and Truman-to-Eisenhower transitions proved sufficiently unsettling to the federal personnel system to provoke public concern and inquiry regarding the proper relationship between politics and the personnel system of the United States government.

"Political wisdom" hitherto has resorted to *ad hoc* methods of modifying civil service organization or procedure in the interest of facilitating policy changes in government. Civil Service Schedule C of 1953 illustrates this approach. The Career Executives Program, recommended by the Second Hoover Commission, symbolizes the road not taken.

It is, of course, apparent that the Career Executives Program or Senior Civil Service offers only a very partial answer to the problem of simultaneously providing for continuity, flexibility, and responsiveness in the staffing of public office. Nevertheless, even this partial measure has not been taken and no great interest in the effect of presidential transitions upon the public service is noticeable beyond those relatively small groups personally and directly affected or professionally concerned.

The ideal of "smooth" political changeover is probably cherished by a relatively small percentage of the population. The commercial communications media, strong partisans, and domestic and foreign ill-wishers to a government directed from Washington may well prefer dramatic transitions of purge and sabotage. But if the national security becomes increasingly threatened and if national choice of action is narrowed by domestic pressures and international events, the hazards of *ad hoc* presidential transitions may become too great to risk.

Some tough-minded thinking about the

practical alternatives available to assist the periodic national reconciliation of politics and personnel might well serve the public interest and promote a more serious consideration of the problem at the top policy forming levels of this republic than it has yet received.

State Personnel Reorganization in Illinois. By Thomas Page. Institute of Government and Public Affairs, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill., 1961. x, 155 pp. $2.00.

Reviewed by

FREDERICK C. MOSHER

Professor, Department of Political Science University of California, Berkeley

Over the past half-century, and even longer, there has been abundant discussion concerning types of organization of personnel functions in public jurisdictions. Much of this argument has revolved about the basic choice between the semi-independent civil service commission and the "integrated" single personnel director. But it has usually recognized a variety of compromise positions lying along a continuum somewhere in between the two poles. Unfortunately, most of our verbalizations have been on the level of theory and principle; there has been rather little in the way of solid study of the real effects of alternative modes of organizing under conditions wherein comparative assessments can be made reliably.

The means of conducting such studies are limited to three conceivable types. Laboratory experiments under controlled conditions are probably unfeasible for the analysis of organizations of this scope. Cross-jurisdictional comparisons of different kinds of personnel systems at different places would be useful but would always suffer the limitations of varying and uncontrolled conditions and forces. In some ways the third type of study—the case analysis, in which a jurisdiction has gone from one kind of organization to another—may prove the most valuable.

Professor Page has, in his monograph about personnel reorganization in Illinois, made a significant contribution to our understanding of personnel organization. His study, which is of the third type indicated above, comprises a recounting of what happened in Illinois leading up to, and following, the establishment in 1957 of a single-headed Department of Personnel and an analysis in considerable depth of the forces, the power relationships and adjustments, and the consequences insofar as they were visible in 1960.

The author actively participated in the work leading to the reorganization and so could bring to bear an abundance of familiarity and understanding of the situation and the reorganization process. On the other hand, his writing demonstrates a highly disciplined, even remarkable, objectivity.

This work is a useful addition to the literature on at least two levels in addition to that of organizational theory. It contains a mine of information about the state government of Illinois with particular reference to its personnel activities. Secondly, it is a comprehensive case description of a reorganization process, written with considerable sensitivity to the latent forces and effects behind the overt decisions and actions.

In the best tradition of case-writing, the author scrupulously avoids normative judgments as to the goodness or badness of individual decisions and behaviors and about the results in general (although here and there it is a little difficult not to read between the lines). This may disappoint some who are in search of easy solutions. On the other hand, he makes and solidly supports his point that organization structure and the loci of legal powers are only an opening clue to the comprehension of where real power lies and what the bases for interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships are.

Like others who have attempted case-analyses of this kind, Professor Page has had difficulty in the organization of his material. At the outset, he mentions three possible alternatives for his presentation: a straight narrative written in time sequence; an analysis of policy issues and the methods of handling them; and the treatment in depth of postulated factors of significance in the development of events.

After considering the merits and demerits of each approach, the author decided that his study should be "essentially a compromise with all three of these methods." This reviewer, at least, found the compromise an occasional roadblock to the reader; interrupted narratives, flashbacks, and little case-vignettes before the total picture had provided a setting are sometimes disturbing.

The text also suffers somewhat from an opaqueness of style in its analytical sections, particularly in its closing chapter of assessment. For example, on page 132, in analyzing the influences of formal and legal

changes, Professor Page describes the selection and tenure of the personnel executive as being—

> . . . the least significant among the possible formal prescriptions in personnel organization. The code's provision for appointment of the director by the governor was estimated by the legislative commission to be a probably informal consequence of the necessary relationship, whatever insulation by tenure or competitive qualification might have been formally attempted.

The first sentence above seems most remarkable if it means what it seems to say; and the second, if I understand it correctly —and I may not—might have been stated a great deal more clearly.

But, if Professor Page shows mild symptoms of the "word-itis" malady so common among social scientists, he has made a significant step toward what should be a basic goal in social science study today: to develop understanding of social forces and phenomena from the realities of human behavior in organizational settings. From this standpoint, this study is eminently worthwhile.

Scientists in Government. By Earl W. Lindveit. Public Affairs Press, 419 New Jersey Ave., S.E., Washington 3, D. C., 1960. viii, 84 pp. $3.25.

Reviewed by

EDWARD MCCRENSKY

Director, Civilian Personnel and Services Division
Office of Naval Research

The title, *Scientists in Government,* is provocative but it also raises expectations for the reader that may not be fulfilled. In this brief study, Dr. Lindveit devotes his attention primarily to the specimen of scientists as a massive and undifferentiated entity existing within the statutory-administrative culture of the federal government. The term *scientists* signifies in the context the broad category of professionally trained technological personnel.

There is little here on the individual or qualitative character of the role of scientists in government. Neither does it propose or reflect an evaluative or interpretative philosophy on such basic questions as to the need for new approaches to the management of scientists, or to such matters as the appropriateness of the federal government's role as the nation's largest employer of scientists. Nor is any effort made to identify the emotional dynamics of government scientists in their adaptation to the federal bureaucracy in which they represent a relatively small but very articulate minority.

Scientists are discussed, with apparent intent, as a large faceless mass, vaguely affected and directed by a governing body of laws, directives, and policies. The obvious limitations of space and area of the author's investigations do not permit an extensive or penetrating treatment of this subject.

The merit of this volume is more apparent when viewed as a convenient handbook of summaries of major laws, regulations, and certain administrative incidents that have in some way determined the capacity of the federal government to organize and maintain a scientific work force.

The chapter entitled "Policy Formulation" furnishes information on the role of principal staff agencies and interdepartmental committees existing in the federal government as related to government science and scientists. The chapter on "Training and Recruitment" summarizes really too briefly some of the principal sources of scientific personnel and some obvious civil service problems in recruitment.

"Environment for Scientific Research," the most useful chapter, presents the major findings of attitude surveys made by the Department of the Army and the Committee on Engineers and Scientists relating to employment of scientists in the federal government.

The final chapters, "The Retention of Scientists" and "Summary and Conclusions," provide additional statistical data gathered in Civil Service Commission studies and others. This information is interesting but not really too important, except to help the layman judge the relevance of some governmental personnel practices to the needs and the career goals of federal scientists. The final chapter also identifies several management areas which deserve continuing research and study.

This book contributes little to the development of an appreciation in depth of the challenge faced by the federal government in attracting, utilizing, and developing creative professional and scientific individuals. It relies for its content not on any original research and evaluation of existing studies, but primarily upon existing administrative reports, surveys, and directives. Its value lies

more in the collection of this information in a single volume.

The Impact of Collective Bargaining on Management. By Sumner H. Slichter, James J. Healy, and E. Robert Livernash. The Brookings Institution, 1775 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 6, D. C., 1960. xv, 982 pp. $8.75.

Reviewed by

E. A. SHELLEY
Director of Personnel
Tennessee Valley Authority

The last book of the late Sumner Slichter, with two Harvard colleagues as co-authors, surveys the whole field of personnel administration under a collective bargaining system. It merits wide reading and study by both practitioners and students, whether in private company or public agency or university.

More through description than through analytical evaluation, the book answers the question, "How is the management of labor in American industry being affected by trade unions and collective bargaining?"

In three years of extensive research the authors went directly to a wide variety of participants to learn firsthand what has happened and is happening in a significant number of union-management situations. Excluding the broad economic impact of unions, they probe for the basic effects of collective bargaining upon management: What has been the influence of unions on the content of policy and practice, on the decision-making process, and on the execution of policy?

Formidable in size but easy to read, the book reports experience in virtually every important phase of collective bargaining: hiring, training, seniority, layoff, and promotion; work assignment and scheduling; technical change; employee benefits; wage structure and incentive; discipline; pressure tactics, grievances and arbitration; union-management cooperation; contract negotiation—to make only a partial list.

The reporting emphasizes practice rather than theory. Attention is focused on what happened in case after case, each unique; then, so far as can be ascertained, on why it happened and what effects it had. In fact, the narration of cases occupies so large a share of the text that some readers may wish for more of the authors' thinking on the subjects being reported.

To select only parts of such a volume for comment is unfair to the scope of the book. To quote brief statements out of context is unfair to the full meaning. Nevertheless, we cite here a few points which we believe are most likely to interest public personnel people.

Pensions, health and welfare plans, premium pay, and other employee benefits have been liberalized over the past twenty years, their cost now being about 20 per cent of total payrolls. Frequent revision of pension and welfare plans has generally been only a process of keeping up with inflation. Union objectives have changed as employees' need for income overrides their desire for leisure; for instance, in the case of overtime pay "what started as a protective tariff has become a revenue measure."

To a great extent controversy has been eliminated from wage structure and job evaluation. "Wage surveys of prevailing rates of pay for key jobs have become standard practice."

Twenty years ago there was almost no provision for grievance arbitration; now contracts almost invariably provide for this process. ". . . it is the consensus that its net effect has been salutary." The authors warn against judging labor relations by number of grievances or arbitration cases. "The wisdom and success of management in labor relations is seldom measurable by statistics alone."

Though "arrangements by which employees and managements can pursue their common interests are conspicuously lacking in modern industry," such arrangements may be expected to increase. Collective bargaining—with its seniority rules and length-of-service benefits—tends to tie employees to the firm. "Hence, unions unintentionally create stronger common interests between employees and employers."

Some highly successful companies have adopted formal plans of union-management cooperation "because they promote better management and more efficient operations. It seems surprising that more widespread adoption has not resulted for this last reason."

Four employee participation plans are described: the non-incentive plans of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, the Canadian National Railways, and the Tennessee Valley Authority; and the incentive-type Scanlon plan. "Certainly the Scanlon Plan has

demonstrated that most employers have been getting merely physical effort from workers when they might have gotten ideas as well." The authors consider the plan "a contribution to the art of management."

Line and staff cooperation should be based on a concept of mutual help, rather than that of staff existing only to help line. Foreman training "is most effective where it is reasonably well integrated with the actual operation of the business." Supervisory conferences are not "training" in the ordinary use of the word. "The emphasis is not on imparting knowledge in an academic sense or on teaching skills. The emphasis is on reaching an understanding with respect to the interpretation and application of policies and on devising solutions for problems."

In conclusion, the authors sum up the characteristics which have developed in American industrial relations during the last 20 years:

1. The scope of managerial discretion has been narrowed, by the terms and by the administration of the union-management contract.
2. Management by policy has increased. "The challenge that unions presented to management has, if viewed broadly, created superior and better-balanced management, even though some exceptions must be recognized. . . . If one single statement were sought to describe the effect of unions on policy-making, it would be: 'they have encouraged investigation and reflection.' "
3. Management structure has changed to include staff specialists and to resolve the question of centralization vs. decentralization (sometimes toward uniformity, sometimes toward autonomy).
4. The character and results of collective bargaining are diverse. Each situation is made up of many interrelated elements which must be considered as a whole. Environments differ, and reactions to environment differ. "The stubborn facts of reality do not permit easy generalizations."
5. Adjustment or accommodation in union-management relationships, even formal cooperation in some cases, has followed the earlier stages of organization and contract development. "The term 'good labor relations' must include within its meaning more than absence of conflict."

The authors conclude that "the American collective bargaining system must be regarded as one of the most successful economic institutions in the country." An important result of the system "is the sense of participation that it imparts to workers." Because it does not foster conditions that produce demands for radical change, "Collective bargaining must be reckoned among the influences that make the American society stable and conservative."

Occupational Planning for Women. By Marguerite Wykoff Zapoleon. Harper and Bros., 49 East 33rd St., New York 16, N. Y., 1961. xii, 276 pp. $5.00.

Reviewed by

AGNES A. MILHOAN
Personnel Officer
Colorado State Compensation Insurance Fund

World War II and the post-war manpower shortage, according to the author, created a healthy and popular interest in the place of women in the work force and in the home. They also were responsible for the revival and broadening of interest in vocational guidance as a tool in developing and employing human resources.

The need for vocational guidance in making woman-power fully effective has been emphasized, but unfortunately there has been no thorough discussion of this field for women in recent years. This book has been written for counselors and others whose function it is to help girls and women in their occupational planning and for those who, as administrators, are responsible for such counsel.

The first four chapters deal with the common problems faced by all men and women in making decisions regarding their future occupations. They outline the meaning of vocational guidance in a set of five principles: (1) vocational guidance centers on the individual rather than on groups or society; (2) the individual solves his problems related to occupational planning with assistance as needed, not by outside compulsion; (3) occupational problems are related to occupational progress and occur throughout an individual's work life; (4) occupational opportunities as well as the individual's characteristics are primary factors

in occupational planning; and (5) vocational guidance envisages expanding opportunity rather than adjustment to the *status quo.*

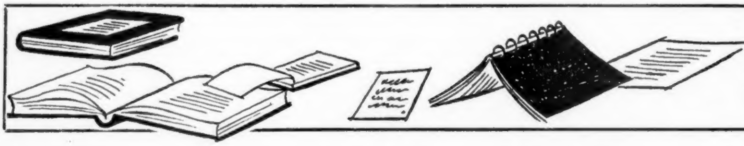
The contribution that vocational guidance can make to an individual's total happiness, how much his total happiness contributes to the ease with which he solves his vocational problems will vary with each individual and even for him will vary with time. To help individuals solve their problems in this area is surely one of the most challenging pursuits, one of the most interesting of the helping professions.

An extensive and excellent coverage is given to occupations and employment of women, to vocational guidance in public schools, and in selected school programs in both high school and college. The chapters on vocational guidance in public employment services are the most comprehensive found in any book of this nature. They outline in much detail the programs of the Department of Labor and the United States Employment Service, and list such tools as tests and books used in their work.

The author places emphasis on the need for employee counseling on the job. In 1938, the Office of Education, then a part of the U. S. Department of the Interior, established an Occupational Information and Guidance Service in its Vocational Division. State departments of education now provide this service. The Department of Vocational Rehabilitation and the Veterans Administration have strong programs. Many other organizations assist their members with occupational problems or sponsor vocational guidance for special groups.

With proper planning a woman can profit by vocational guidance, especially in her decisions early in life. Without guidance, a woman is not likely to take a total view of her situation before reaching a decision. With guidance, the comprehensive view includes a cross-sectional view of the present, a long view into the future, a joint view with those most affected by her decisions and for a periodic evaluation.

Experience in more than one field of any profession is recommended. Occupations, like people, change, and a variety of experience in the same occupation and advanced study increase employability. The author recommends continued research and improvement in techniques and methods in occupational counseling.



BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

206 Questions and Answers from the Seminar on Recruiting College Graduates. Institute of Occupational Research, 104 Webster Ave., Manhasset, N. Y., 1960. 32 pp. $2.00.

These are excerpts from tape recordings of a seminar in which questions were raised by the group and discussed by the experienced recruiters and the college placement officers who comprised the guest faculty. The topics included are: how to determine manpower requirements; how to establish and maintain good college relations; how to make yourself unpopular on the campus; appraising personality, drive and ability; the value of professors' comments on students; plant visits; who makes the offer and when; ratio of interviews and offers to acceptances.

Personnel Practices in Selected Municipalities. Charles Rodman Porter. Texas Municipal League, 402 Vaughn Building, Austin 1, Texas, 1961. iii, 108 pp. $7.50.

This bulletin represents a comprehensive reference volume that should be of interest to all municipal officials as a means for evaluating a personnel program. A number of Texas cities, plus some of the largest cities in thirteen other states, cooperated in this report by responding to a 21-page questionnaire on personnel practices prepared by the author. The data gathered from the questionnaires and published in this volume provide useful yardsticks by which to determine whether a personnel program is achieving its goal. The subjects included in the study are central recruiting, applicant screening, job classification, compensation schedules, orientation and training programs, safety programs, employee suggestion systems, retirement policies, personnel records and report-

ing, and employee performance ratings. Two appendices include the list of cities to which the questionnaires were mailed and the questionnaire itself.

Today's Woman in Tomorrow's World. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. U. S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., 1960. xii, 138 pp. $.50.

This is a report of a conference in June, 1960, commemorating the 40th anniversary of the Department of Labor Women's Bureau and contains, with some slight editing, a verbatim transcript of the proceedings. The conference was designed and planned to evaluate the progress made by women in the working world to date as well as to project into the future. The panelists and speakers represent a variety of backgrounds and opinions, hence providing valuable information for individuals and groups interested in the subject.

1960 Handbook on Women Workers. U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau. U. S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., 1960. vi, 160 pp. $.45.

Designed as a sourcebook for the use of employers, labor unions, government officials, educators and counselors, women's organizations, and others interested in the facts about women's employment, this new edition provides basic information on women's employment and occupations, age and marital status of women workers, women's earnings and income, educational status, and state laws affecting the employment and civil and political status of women. Published biennially, the 1960 edition contains information available since 1958 and brings up to date previous editions.

Interviewing in Social Security. Elizabeth de Schweinitz and Karl de Schweinitz. U. S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., 1961. ix, 99 pp. $1.50.

This small book, produced by the Social Security Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, was originally designed for the use of personnel in the district offices of the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance. Because it captures the spirit and nature of interviewing and points up the importance of understanding the principles of interviewing, it will also be helpful reading matter for all government personnel on any level who act for and represent their government in daily face-to-face contact with the public. Actual case illustrations are used throughout and can serve to broaden the reader's knowledge of how to deal with people in a variety of situations.

Procedures Manual: Oral Examinations. Griffenhagen-Kroeger, Inc., 64 Pine St., San Francisco, Calif. Unpaged. $3.50.

A guide designed for prospective oral board members which should be helpful in the review of the factors to be considered in the oral examination process, whether the board members are experienced in this phase of merit system selection or not. Contents include: Guide for Oral Examination Board Members, which discusses the interviewer's place in the testing process, what the interview measures, the procedure, and rating of the candidate; Oral Examination Procedures, consisting of a list of subjects that should be reviewed in the orientation of the board members prior to the interviews; Rating Tools, covering the principles on which the development of the rating form is based, a list of definitions of rating factors, six rating forms, and factor scale values for various weightings; and Guide for the Use of Forms for Various Employment Categories.

Wage Behavior in the Postwar Period: An Empirical Analysis. William G. Bowen. Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey, 1960. xiii, 137 pp. $3.00.

This study, the second that the author has completed on wage behavior and its relation to prices and inflation, presents new information on how wages have behaved since World War II. It examines the role of such factors as unemployment, escalator con-

tracts, unionization, industrial concentration, and profits in determining wage levels. Valuable reading for individuals concerned with public policy as related to inflation, unemployment, and wage and price relationships. (5 Appendixes, 14 Tables, 3 Charts.)

Determining Salaries For Computer Personnel. Philip H. Weber. Research Bureau, *Management and Business Automation* Magazine, 600 West Jackson Blvd., Chicago 6, Ill., 1960. 103 pp. $5.00.

An operating manual consisting of actual positions, position grades and salary ranges, in addition to the forms and procedures required for the administration of an overall evaluation program for computer personnel, this handbook contains useful information for those organizations that do not as yet have a formal evaluation plan. It is conveniently divided into three parts: Part 1—An introduction to the basic problems of compensation of employees, showing how the growth of a company creates the necessity for a formal evaluation program; Part 2—A step-by-step outline necessary to develop an evaluation program; and Part 3—A complete manual with detailed information on actual, usable position descriptions, rating scales, position grades, salary ranges and the necessary administration procedures for a complete evaluation program. The material in Part 3 was gathered from a survey of computer department personnel recently conducted by *Management and Business Automation* Magazine.

Managing Major Change in Organizations: An Undeveloped Area of Administration and Social Research. Floyd C. Mann and Franklin W. Neff. Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, P. O. Box 1261, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1961. 99 pp. $3.00.

This is a report of meetings held in 1959 attended by executives and administrators of a number of large companies and governmental agencies, and social scientists from university research organizations to discuss problems of introducing large-scale changes. Four case histories are presented, two dealing with the introduction of electronic data-processing equipment in office situations, one with the start-up of a semi-automatic seamless steel pipe mill, and one describing an extensive effort to decentralize in a food chain company. The principles and procedures involved in bringing about these changes are discussed. The need for viewing an organization as a social system and for careful planning in order to take account of the human needs of the affected members of the organization are emphasized.

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Civil Service Staff Relations in Saskatchewan. Saul J. Frankel. *Canadian Public Administration.* September, 1960.

The Saskatchewan Civil Service Association was formed in 1913, for social and recreational purposes of headquarters staff only. When the Cooperative Commonwealth Federation, a socialist party, was elected to office in 1944, trade-union activities, even among government employees, were encouraged by the passage of the Trade Union Act. Hence, the employee association was affiliated to the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada.

Some minor splintering of membership occurred at this time when four small groups of employees affiliated with another labour organization, the Canadian Congress of Labour. However, in 1956 both the above labour organizations merged to form the Canadian Labour Congress.

The first formal collective labour agreement between a government and its employees was signed in Saskatchewan in 1945. There were, in fact, five separate agreements which recognized the diversity of government employment. Certain classes of employees which represent management, generally branch heads or higher, must be excluded from membership in the staff association. These excluded classes are decided by negotiation.

In 1957 the Labour Relations Board granted a request of the government's professional engineers for exclusion from the bargaining unit of the employees' association. The government later agreed not to initiate bargaining procedures with disaffiliated groups.

The formal provisions of the Public Service Act of Saskatchewan for collective bargaining are elaborate and unequivocal. The employee association negotiates on two levels for 550 distinct classes of employees spread out over an area of 250,000 square miles. The first level has to do with general wage levels and working conditions and the second level is concerned with salary adjustments of specific classes.

Proposals relating to the first level are channeled to the employees' Provincial Executive and Negotiating Committee from seventeen branches of the association. Proposals relating to the second level are brought to the same body by interested individuals or groups. The effective negotiator for the government side is the Chairman of the Public Service Commission, who gets final authority from the provincial cabinet.

Though a two-year period was formerly used as a basis for negotiation, a one-year period has been followed since 1958. This makes negotiation a continuous process. Another question, which has arisen with the direct participation of the Canadian Labour Congress in politics, is that of compromising an affiliated government employees' association. However, the president of the labour congress has issued a statement stressing the autonomy of affiliated unions as far as political action is concerned.

The experience of full collective bargaining between a government and a civil service has generally been satisfactory from both parties' points of view. Employee morale and good will have been enhanced and governmental administrative costs have not been increased.—J. Fred Dawe.

The Development of Personnel Administration in Western Europe. F. T. Malm. *California Management Review.* Fall, 1960. (Also available as Reprint No. 146 from Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, Berkeley.)

The extent to which personnel administration is developed in Western Europe parallels the degree of industrialization of the countries. Advanced industrial areas utilize more highly developed personnel approaches than do underdeveloped areas. Economic and cultural differences between countries or even within a country also af-

fect the development of personnel administration.

The objectives of European management as opposed to those of American management influence the view taken toward personnel administration. For example, typical European management is characterized by centralization of authority, a familial or paternalistic approach, authoritarian leadership, while modern American management emphasizes delegation of authority, management development, and participative leadership.

Problems of personnel administration in Western Europe are related to the need for defining objectives and stating policies for management; developing workable organizational relationships and an understanding of the staff role of the personnel department; adapting international standards of management practice to particular situations.

Recommendations for European management education and personnel administration include the following:

1. Increase courses and conferences relating to modern principles and methods of personnel management.
2. Develop further the professionalization of personnel administration.
3. Continue research in behavioral sciences and on operational problems of business enterprises.
4. Intensify activities in supervisory training and executive education.
5. Expand university level education in business administration.

Many progressive changes which affect European management are being made, and continuing development is needed in order to deal effectively with problems of human resources in growing business and government enterprises.—DOROTHY E. EVERETT.

Collective Bargaining for Government Employees. Richard Carpenter. *Tax Digest.* November, 1960.

In the absence of prohibitory legislation, it is generally conceded that public employees may join labor unions. Policemen are a major exception. The Los Angeles Board of Police Commissioners prohibited their policemen from joining any union whose membership was not exclusively made up of city employees. When contested, the State Appellate Court ruled that "the suit herein is against the people. It disputes the power of the people to establish and conduct the government, for it seeks to control governmental processes by indirection. . . ."

California legislation enacted in 1959 makes it unlawful for public agencies to prohibit firefighters from joining a labor organization, but it expressly outlaws strikes and states that collective bargaining provisions of the State Labor Code do not apply to public employees.

Labor proposals often conceal their ultimate intent by the use of conciliatory phrases such as collective "negotiation," "permissive arbitration," and "multiple representation." One labor representative gave us a glimpse of labor's goal when he said that the requirement of a compulsory contract "is premature."

Public employment differs drastically from private employment. Wages, hours, and working conditions are fixed by laws; there is no profit motive; both public officers and employees are public servants and owe undivided allegiance to the people. There is no question that legislative bodies must provide opportunities for employee organizations to be heard. But collective bargaining would place government in the position of umpiring its own game.

The legislative power to fix wages, hours, and other conditions of employment cannot be delegated to private persons. Otherwise we would have government by contract rather than by law, and government by men (some of whom are not responsible to the voters) rather than government by laws.

Labor's argument for collective bargaining, contracts, and arbitration assumes that these are preferable to laws. This argument overlooks experience (in which government leads the way in improved working conditions) and it ignores the right of public employees to appeal to the voters—a right not shared by private employees.

Public employees have greater security operating within the democratic framework of laws and representative government than can ever be afforded by contracts controlled by non-elected and non-responsible union leaders.—LEW FAY.

The Tyranny of Multiple-Choice Tests. Banesh Hoffmann. *Harper's Magazine.* March, 1961.

Increasing reliance is being placed on multiple-choice tests as a measure of ability. Because of their defects, the use of these tests needs a thorough re-examination, which

it is not getting, and our confidence in them can result in dangerous consequences.

These tests have the appeal of combining efficiency and economy with the advantage of "objectivity." The process of grading is objective but subjective judgments determine which answer is right and which is wrong. How good these tests are in determining ability should be asked and emphasized rather than how quick and economical they are. Test-makers have created a widespread and misleading impression that their products are flawless because of the application of the scientific ritual of psychological expertise, pretesting, and statistical analysis.

Prominent educators and others have made many charges against these tests. Some of these are that they: favor the facile candidate over one who is creative as the opportunity to demonstrate creativity is lacking; penalize those who perceive subtle points unnoticed by less able people, including the test makers; tend to be superficial and intellectually dishonest with questions made difficult by means of ambiguity because searching questions do not fit into the multiple-choice format; degenerate into subjective guessing games in which the candidate does not pick what he considers the best answer but the one he believes the examiner would consider the best; neglect skill in disciplined expression; have a pernicious effect on education and the recognition of merit.

When confronted with criticisms, the test-makers exhibit patient reasonableness; but they consider themselves experts while critics see them as amateurs offering opinion, not scientific fact. A way to penetrate this defense is to exhibit and challenge specific test questions and declare that they are defective.

Because of the secrecy of these tests, it is extremely difficult to make a comprehensive and independent judgment of them. One solution could be the review of these tests by an independent board of eminent scholars and educators acting in the public interest to determine the worth of the tests and also whether the multiple-choice format is suited to measuring the abilities tested today.

Multiple-choice tests are useful when properly constructed, although their quality can be much improved. If, however, their format is found inappropriate, their grip on our education system should be broken as testing is too crucial an activity to be accepted on trust.—LORETTA K. FUKUDA.

More Value from Personnel Testing. Andrew J. Souerwine. *Harvard Business Review*. March-April, 1961.

When should psychological tests be used in business? Only when a company sees that it has a problem that may best be solved by developing a testing program, and then, only if the estimated return justifies the estimated cost.

Where does a company turn to find support for the use of a given test? The only sure answer to this question is to use and then to test the test itself.

The author suggests six steps to be followed in determining the validity of tests:

1. Study the job.
2. Determine the factors needed for success.
3. Determine which factors can be tested and then develop or select the tests.
4. Administer the tests to applicants and hire without the benefit of test results, and/or administer the tests to a group of "good" and "poor" workers on that job.
5. Interpret the results; i.e., determine the extent to which test results are related to the job performance.
6. Follow through and re-check the validity of the test results periodically.

However, a company should do more than focus on such factors as determining what the problem is, whether tests are a solution, what program should be used in the development and evaluation of such tests, how much tests cost, effects on labor supply, and the like.

While these areas must undoubtedly be considered, they will be of no value to the company that does not take a closer look at and gain insight into, its departmental relations, particularly between line and staff functions, its willingness to accept objective measures of evaluating personnel, and its desire for change.

Effective testing means committing oneself to learning where the tests come from, on what evidence the publisher bases its statements concerning their results, and how to evaluate more objectively the information the tests indicate on personnel. It means a willingness to become more critical of oneself, more aware of the overgeneralizations one makes about people, and more aware of one's biases.

In short, over and above its concern for the mechanics of developing a testing pro-

gram, a company must develop awareness of certain subtleties existing within its management ranks, which will act as critical determinants of the success or failure of psychological testing in business.—JOAN M. COLE.

Use of the Kuder Preference Record, Personal, with Police Officers. David M. Sterne. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* October, 1960.

This study was made to accumulate additional data for vocational counseling as well as to explore the usefulness of the Kuder Preference Record in selecting effective police officers. The Kuder Preference Record, Personal, is designed to provide a five-scale measure of personal preferences:

A—for being active in groups
B—for working in familiar and stable situations
C—for dealing with ideas
D—for avoiding conflict
E—for directing others

In the original 1953 study, a base group of 1,000 was inventoried, and norms were developed on these five preference scales. Separate norms were also developed at that time for 53 individuals in protective service (police and fire) occupations. Among this latter group, those who liked their work showed little desire to avoid conflict (D) and high preference for directing others (E).

Preference data were gathered in a new study of 49 municipal policemen. Comparison of results with the base group showed the original finding was accentuated. More highly significant variation was found in preferences of public safety personnel for dealing with conflicts and for directing others. In other words, the policemen had even less aversion to controversy and more inclination to direct others than shown for protective service personnel generally in the original study.

Multiple supervisory ratings of efficiency and value to the force did not correlate significantly with any of the Kuder scale scores, age, or years in service. Low but significant correlations were found between scores of preference for directing others and working with ideas, and supervisory ratings of behavior demonstrating these characteristics. Education was shown to correlate with the criterion measure and with scores and ratings of preference for working with ideas. Common behavior characteristics of high and low scorers in three of the Kuder scales (A, D, and E), were identified and described. (Comparative table of preference scores.)—HERBERT L. HOMAN.

Analysis of a Job Evaluation System. Francis D. Harding, Joseph M. Madden, and Kenneth Colson. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* October, 1960.

The provocative statement of M. S. Viteles, in his article "A Psychologist Looks at Job Evaluation" (*Personnel,* 1941), "that beneath the superficial orderliness of job evaluation techniques there is much that smacks of chaos" has stimulated much study of job-evaluation procedures by psychologists. As background to analysis of certain aspects of the job-evaluation system used by the United States Air Force, significant findings of several previous job-evaluation studies are cited.

The general conclusion of several—for example, Ash in 1948, Grant in 1951, Howard and Schultz in 1952, Lawshe and Satter in 1944—dealing with factor analyses of job-evaluation plans, has been that instead of the usual multiple factors used, only three or four were needed to obtain the same results. Basic factors identified were skill demands, responsibility, working conditions, and job hazards. The consensus of the studies of D. J. Chesler in 1948, and C. H. Lawshe and P. Farbo in 1949, which attempted to measure the reliability or consistency of evaluations, was that trained analysts can reliably or consistently apply the evaluation plans.

In the study of the United States Air Force job-evaluation system, special attention is focused on three areas: differences between consensus evaluations based upon discussions among raters and upon averages of independent ratings; interrelationship between separate factors and the contribution of each to the total job evaluation; and the reliability or consistency of the evaluations.

Careful selection was made of the rater group, the jobs to be evaluated, and the job-evaluation plan. Supervisors or craftsmen rated the jobs in which they had particular competence on a point system using ten factors, each of which was divided into six rating levels. "Each rater independently evaluated the job on each factor and then conferred with one other rater to arrive at a consensus evaluation for each factor." Three hundred and eighty-six individual evaluations and 193 two-man consensus evaluations were obtained.

After charting relevant factor intercorrelations, factor variances, and estimates of reliability based on intercorrelations and components of variance, and after exploring possible interpretations, an analysis of results is made. Specifically, "it was shown that a simple averaging of individual ratings very closely approximates consensus ratings derived from discussion between two judges." Certainly this finding gives rise to reappraisal about the necessity for conferences —both cumbersome and costly—to attempt to agree on consensus ratings.

While only six factors—Knowledge, Physical Skills, Adaptability and Resourcefulness, Responsibility for Directing Others, Attention, and Military and Combat—made significant independent contributions to the total score, only a small amount of variance in each factor was predictable from the other factors. Contrary to the findings cited in several earlier studies dealing with factor analyses of job-evaluation plans is the conclusion that "it may not always be advisable to seek to reduce the number of factors used in the present job-evaluation plan."

Finally, while the correlational approach to measures of reliability provided fairly high values, estimates based on components of variance, though lower, were considered more meaningful. "The discrepancy between the estimates illustrates the difficulty of computing the amount of unique reliable variance in each factor," and concludes an analysis of a study which, while exploding some earlier premises in the field of job-evaluation study, admits the difficulty inherent in assessing reliability based on the criterions of intercorrelations and components of variance. (Article contains three statistical tables and bibliography.)—HELEN THOMPSON.

Predicting Performance Evaluations. Joel T. Campbell, Erich P. Prien, and Lester G. Brailey. *Personnel Psychology*. Winter, 1960.

A study was made of the test scores and performance ratings of 95 clerical employees of a public utility. This study was undertaken for two reasons: "to develop a performance evaluation procedure for use with clerical employees, and, second, to validate a series of selection measures—the interview and objective personality and performance tests."

After test scores and performance ratings of the group were obtained, a preliminary interview followed. Subsequently, the PRI Arithmetic Reasoning Test and the Wonderlic Personnel Tests were administered.

The interviewers, staff members of the employment department, rated the applicants following the final interview. The rating form included 26 behavioral statements and four graphic rating scales. Supervisory ratings became the basis of criterion data. Second supervisory ratings were obtained on a sample of 36 employees.

Correlation of test scores with performance ratings and rate-rerate reliabilities for criteria indicate that the best predicator of a single criterion measure is the Gordon Emotional Stability scale. Gordon's definition of his scale is: "High scores in this scale characterize individuals who are well-balanced, emotionally stable and relatively free from anxiety and nervous tension. Low scores are associated with excessive anxiety, tension, hyper-sensitivity and nervousness."

The results of this study concur with the findings of other researchers in that the employment interview is useful for obtaining facts and orientating the prospective employee. As a measure of predicting employee performance, "its value is limited and questionable." In this study, Gordon Personal Profile scale reveals significantly higher validity.

The following conclusions were reached:

"A. The test scores of the Responsibility and Emotional Stability scales of the Gordon Personal Profile yield higher validity than the interview or the performance tests. The correlation of the Emotional Stability scale with each of the criterion measures, regardless of the logical relationship, suggests the presence of rater bias or a halo factor.

"B. Rating scales following a check list show higher apparent validity than does the check list. This is in accord with Wherry's theory.

"C. The interviewer ratings were in agreement with scores on the Dominance and Responsibility scales as measured by the Gordon, although these factors are not relevant to the job and the scores were not available at the time of the interview." (The article has two tables and a bibliography.) —BABETTE G. GOLDSMITH.

Mechanics of Conducting a Merit Review Program. Philip M. Oliver. *Personnel Journal*. November, 1960.

Annually, many companies face the problem of reviewing their salaried payroll to identify those employees whose past per-

formance justifies a salary increase. An annual review program based on meritorious performance is used at Lockheed Missiles and Space Division.

To save time and reduce the costs of administering the salary review program, Lockheed developed an IBM card for each of its approximately 9,300 salaried employees. The salary adjustment review card summarized much of the pertinent data formerly available only from the individual salary administration files. It contained information on the employee's salary progression, the size and frequency of previous increases, and the relationship of the employee's salary to that of his superior and his subordinates. These cards were then explained to line officials and distributed to them for their decisions on appropriate adjustments.

After this, the cards were returned to the tabulating department for processing. This included verification of the amount and percentage of increase, the new salary, the organization location, and the reproduction of a new payroll status card using a 650 computer, plus auxiliary equipment. The cards were also used to prepare a four-part, preprinted personnel action form. This was burst and distributed to the line organizations for their files and the employees concerned.

The time required in the salary review process (which had formerly required pulling individual salary administration folders) was cut in half. The administrative cost showed a savings of over $50,000 as compared with previous years. Line officials, who had not previously had the information on salary history and relationships, were unanimous in their endorsement of the new system.

It is believed that this type of program could be used effectively in any organization where an annual review is conducted and where appropriate tabulating equipment is available. (Card format illustrated.)—GENEVIEVE M. LIND.

Management? Administration? Supervision? How Do These Terms Differ? William F. Dinsmore. *Office Executive.* January, 1961.

The distinguishing differences between supervision and management are evident in the things to be done and how things are done. Supervision involves overseeing one generally cohesive function, whereas management involves integrating and co-ordinating dissimilar functions related to the successful accomplishment of a common objective. Furthermore, the supervisor directly oversees the work of individual employees and he may perform details of his own. The manager is concerned with what is to be done in general, but not the specific ways to do it.

The difference between management and administration is in emphasis. The administrator formulates the long-range objective and the guide lines—broad policies and strategies for their accomplishment. Management translates these into specific short-term objectives and tactics, and directs activities to achieve specific results which harmonize with and lead toward the broad objectives.

Obviously, these distinctions can be overdrawn. Management and administration shade up and down toward each other. The line between supervision and management, on the other hand, emerges rather clearly.

In summing up, the supervisor tells people what to do and how to do it. The manager tells people what to accomplish in fairly specific terms; he is the tactician. The administrator assigns general objectives, but gives little or no consideration to the detailed methods and their accomplishments; he is the strategist.

Necessarily, these general rules will vary.—HARRIS SKIDDELL.

The Untimely Passing of Management Development. Michael G. Blansfield. *Personnel Journal.* March, 1961.

The typical management development program as we know it today will probably pass away. Limited in scope, the "typical" program involving the periodical appraisal of the management group, the processing of forms, and the recording of the status quo will fail as economic conditions tighten because it can provide none of the essentials that management must have to survive. Fortunately, there is hope in the "untypical" program that stresses positive personal growth in developing managerial capacity, ability, and talent.

The "untypical" program provides for the planned development of organizational and individual capacities. Growth does not depend upon chance, but is stimulated by an active program utilizing specialists with a background in business administration, the social sciences, and in training methods and techniques. Flexibility in organization and responsiveness to change are encouraged, and individual incapacities (intellectual lim-

itations and emotional immaturity) that hamper a positive program are dealt with in more realistic and firm manner. Organizational goals are clearly defined and communicated, and the individual's desire for success and personal growth is cultivated by strengthening his close and earnest identification with these goals. In the "untypical" program, the need for courage, not conformity, is recognized—the courage to experiment, to fail, if necessary. Growth and management development, as a growth process, rest upon change and the freedom to experiment.

It is this kind of management development plan, founded on the belief that man can grow not only from the addition of knowledge and skill but also from the liberation of qualities already possessed, that will achieve the desired end of expanding managerial ability and talent.—GEORGE R. McDONALD.

Tracking Down the Professional Man. Donald H. Sweet. *Personnel.* November-December, 1960.

Since World War II, the demand for qualified people has outrun the supply. In panic, management has often adopted new techniques in preference to proven sources of recruitment.

Employment agencies have become more sophisticated in their operations and some have branched out into the field of executive search. Advertising under the name of the agency is often very effective because it offers an opportunity to the job hunter to investigate an opportunity in confidence. Many of the complaints of both agencies and companies can be corrected by "(1) visiting the agency and meeting its staff, (2) inviting the agency to visit and learn about the company, (3) making sure that each keeps the other informed about their activities."

Electronic industries alone spend over $18 million a year on help-wanted ads. This suggests that perhaps too much rather than too little classified advertising is being done. The person most likely to read the ads is the man who is out of work or who is dissatisfied or who is otherwise suspect by companies interested in hiring top-notch people.

Field trips might be made more effective by selecting an area where there are the kind of people you are recruiting, by prearranging interviews, and by judicious advertising. A convenient location and reasonable hours (evenings and weekends) for interviewing are important.

College recruiting will always remain an important source of professionally trained personnel. Its effectiveness lies in preplanning to determine manpower requirements, predetermination of recruiting criteria, and careful selection and training of recruiters. The effective recruiter will have available current information about his company, and will consider grades, test results, faculty evaluations, and extracurricular activities, in addition to personal impressions.

Professional meetings and conventions are an overrated source of professional employees simply because the "good" people attend these meetings to participate in its activities.

Executive search is an expensive recruiting technique, but oftentimes it is the only effective way to fill top-level positions. Employment agencies and/or consultants usually conduct the search for a fee.

An often overlooked, but very effective means of filling vacancies is through employee referrals. Its value lies in the fact that the employee will take pains to recommend only those candidates who are reliable and capable.

The technique of internal search is gaining increasing acceptance. The value of filling jobs by promoting your own employees is apparent. The mechanics of an internal search program are as follows:

1. Devise a coding system compatible with the various kinds of skill and with the data-processing system to be used.
2. Gather information from the technical staff by questionnaire.
3. Reduce information to data and apply it to the system codes and cards.—GEORGE D. McGUINNESS.

Salary Determination for White-Collar Civil Servants in Great Britain. H. M. Douty. *Monthly Labor Review.* November, 1960.

This article, which is based on interviews conducted during the spring of 1960, is concerned with the 600,000 non-industrial civil servants in Great Britain. Over the years a number of Royal Commissions have enquired into civil service compensation. The terms of reference of the Priestly Commission (1953-1955) included review of the principles that should govern the pay and other benefits of white-collar government employees.

The commission concluded that "the primary principle of civil service pay is fair

comparison with the current remuneration of outside staffs employed on broadly comparable work, taking account of differences in other conditions of service." A second principle was that "vertical relativities (i.e., pay relationships among grades within a particular class of work) must be an important factor in supplementing fair comparisons." Less attention should be paid to horizontal than to vertical relativities: "changes in the relative value of different occupations or professions outside the Service should be reflected inside the Service . . . [otherwise] the principle of fair comparison would be violated."

The commission recommended that comparisons should be made with "good employers" in relation to median rates. Adjustments to reflect the value of supplementary benefits and also unquantifiable factors should be taken into account. It also proposed a formal procedure for developing comparisons, which resulted in the creation of the Civil Service Pay Research Unit.

The salaries of all but the highest levels of non-industrial civil servants in Great Britain are determined essentially through collective bargaining, with resort to arbitration in case of failure to agree. Machinery for consultation and negotiation is provided by the National Whitley Council. Through a steering committee, this council exercises supervision over the work of the Pay Research Unit and determines priorities.

The British service consists of a large number of grades which can be considered quite separately for pay purposes. A salary claim can be advanced for a particular grade or class of civil servants by an appropriate union. If it requires a survey by the Pay Research Unit, negotiations will await survey results. For civil service grades cutting across departmental lines the Treasury bargains directly for the government as employer. For departmental grades it is closely consulted by the responsible departmental officials before any concession is made.

The Pay Research Unit has two particular functions: to establish job comparability and to record the pay and conditions of service for jobs regarded as comparable. A survey report contains, company by company, a detailed analysis of the jobs considered comparable, including, where necessary, an account of work organization. Rates of pay are given, followed by detailed information on other terms of employment.

The survey reports, which do not identify the companies included, are made available only to the representatives of the staff associations and the Treasury or department concerned. A working party of Treasury and union representatives is set up to summarize the data in a form suitable for use in final negotiations. If a negotiated settlement is not reached, the case is taken to the Civil Service Arbitration Tribunal, and any offers made by the Treasury during negotiations could be withdrawn. In a few instances arbitration awards have been below offers made in negotiation.—J. STUART STEPHEN.

Abstracters for 1961

The following members of the Public Personnel Association have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1961:

Joan M. Cole, City of Chicago Civil Service Commission.

J. Fred Dawe, Civil Service Commission of Canada, Ottawa.

Dorothy E. Everett, University of California, Berkeley.

Lew Fay, Personnel Director, San Diego, California, City Civil Service Commission.

Loretta K. Fukuda, Recruiting and Examining Supervisor, Hawaii Department of Civil Service, Honolulu.

Ronald D. Gallaher, Personnel Technician, Pasadena Department of Personnel.

Babette G. Goldsmith, Civil Service Examiner, San Francisco City and County Civil Service Commission.

Herbert L. Homan, Recruitment Officer, Career Service Authority, Denver.

Genevieve M. Lind, Training Officer, Oregon State Civil Service Commission, Salem.

George R. McDonald, Portland (Oregon) Civil Service Board.

George D. McGuinness, Chief Fiscal and Personnel Officer, New Jersey Department of Labor and Industry, Trenton.

Ruth L. Olson, Bureau Personnel Officer, Bureau of Aeronautics, Department of the Navy, Washington, D. C.

Harris Skiddell, Philadelphia Personnel Department.

J. Stuart Stephen, Director of Personnel, Province of Ontario Civil Service Commission, Toronto.

Helen Thompson, Assistant Personnel Director, City of Atlanta, Georgia.

Our Readers Write . . .

EDITOR'S NOTE: The following comments refer to the article "The Public Service in Iran," by Richard W. Gable, in the January issue of *Public Personnel Review*. The first letter comes from Mr. Winfield Lowe, U. S. Operations Mission, Tehran, Iran. The second is the author's response to the points raised by Mr. Lowe.

• Mr. Lowe's Comments

To the Editor:

As a member of the Public Personnel Association for a number of years, I should like to make the following comments on Mr. Gable's excellent article in the January issue.

Problems encountered in setting up a central personnel agency for the Government of Iran are related to the problems of having any central services for the government, in procurement, budgeting, organization and methods, training, or personnel management. These problems have their origins in Constitutional questions: What are the powers of the Monarch? What are the powers of the ministers acting in concert as Council of Ministers (or Cabinet)? What is the role of the Prime Minister (an office hardly mentioned in the Constitution of 1906)?

When the great ministries were first established in the last century—Finance, Foreign Affairs, War, Interior, Justice—the ministers were appointed by the hereditary Shah and looked to him alone for leadership. There is still this tendency. It runs counter to a strong Prime Ministry, the great ministries jealously attempting to guard themselves from what they regard as "interference" from any source other than the Monarch.

In an attempt to combat the separateness of each ministry and to spread new ideas and concepts of government administration, associations and councils have been forming in the last several years. Among these are the High Council of Administrative Undersecretaries (with a representative from each ministry), the Council of Government Chiefs of Personnel, the Iran Personnel Association, and the Council of Government Chiefs of Management Improvement Offices. Contemplated at this time is a Council of Government Training Officers.

As Mr. Gable wrote, cooperation has not come easily among the highly individualistic Iranians. Yet as the fields of government management, personnel administration, training, and organization and methods, are slowly professionalizing, men in these emerging professions tend to gather in associations for the exchange of ideas and methods and to win professional recognition.

Apparently, Mr. Gable was unaware of the actual creation of the Civil Service Agency of the Government of Iran. This was done by decree of the Council of Ministers in 1959. While the Civil Service Agency has not developed as yet into a central personnel agency with all the duties and responsibilities of our mature agencies in the United States, it has already become the meeting place for the new councils and may well turn out to be the government's central management office. The Civil Service Agency is attached to the Office of Prime Minister and has been handicapped as a central government service because of the situation I have described.

The article said that there had not been a census of Iranian civil servants. A census was taken in July 1956 and the results were published in English in 1958. The census, which was conducted by the then-new Department of Public Statistics of the Ministry of Interior (with technical and financial assistance from the United States Operations Mission to Iran), showed that there were 207,140 civil servants in the government exclusive of the Ministry of War. With the changes in the government since 1956, it would be a conservative estimate to

say that there are 250,000 government employees today.

No mention was made of the work of the United States Operations Mission to Iran, the U.N., and other outside agencies in encouraging the spread of new administrative skills, including skills in modern personnel management; nor was there mention of the young Iranians being trained in public administration at Tehran University and abroad.

Many of our Western ideas of good management could not be practiced in the Government of Iran under any circumstances because there were no ways to express those ideas in the Persian language. A new generation of well-trained Iranians is growing to maturity and gradually entering the more responsible positions. These are the men who have been putting our Western ideas into Persian words, and with the new Persian words disseminating the ideas.

For example, consider our term "merit system." Just how long has it taken all of us to have the words "merit system" convey a definite idea of good government in the English language? Iranians had to agree among themselves upon Persian words for our term "merit system," which would make possible a similar idea to Iranians. Slowly the Persian words for "merit system," along with Persian words for many other personnel and public-management ideas borrowed from us, are becoming familiar to the educated classes.

Iran continues to have serious problems in government management. The economic conditions have never allowed a full employment, and government employment must still be regarded as a form of public assistance. Fundamental questions of government organization remain to be answered.

But Western, and especially American, ideas about sound public management are now becoming well known. How the gifted Iranians will be able to employ these ideas in the future depends upon both the internal conditions of the country and world conditions, since the country is in the midst of the world-wide struggle between the forces of freedom for and tyranny over the masses of men.

WINFIELD LOWE
U. S. Operations Mission
Tehran, Iran

• The Author's Response

To the Editor:

The thoughtful letter of Win Lowe is much appreciated. His experience as Personnel Adviser in U. S. Operations Mission to Iran well qualifies him to comment on my article. There is certainly no basic disagreement in our analysis of the public service in Iran and I particularly welcome his additions to my commentary. If I may, a few matters bear more extended discussion.

Yes, I was aware of the creation of a Civil Service Agency by Council of Ministers decree in March of 1959. Win sent me a translation of this decree in September of that year. My article was prepared not many months later and at that time it appeared that the new Agency had a tenuous foundation and was not a part of the stream of developments I was reporting.

The new Agency was created out of the former Position Classification Organization, an organization created and operated with the assistance of U. S. technical experts in Iran, and which itself had a very troubled past. Furthermore, the Council of Ministers provided only partial funds to support the new Agency and the U. S. Mission at the time indicated it would not be able to assure financial support beyond the year because of the phasing-down policy for certain of its activities. The objective was for the Civil Service Agency to gain legal foundation by the enactment of the new civil employment law as proposed by the High Council of Administrative Undersecretaries —which was the point of development where my article ended.

I must confess ignorance of the census data, but I would like to comment on the interesting problem of the availability of such data, prepared with the assistance of the U. S. Operations Mission to Iran. I was one of a team of USC professors working under contract with ICA to assist in establishing an Institute of Public and Business Administration in the University of Tehran. Beginning from scratch in this endeavor, we thirsted for research reports, descriptive accounts, or any other kinds of data which we could use to gain a better understanding of the Government of Iran and to prepare

teaching materials for ourselves and the Iranian professors.

We knew how difficult it was to obtain data from the Government of Iran because often none existed; and when they did, few Iranians knew how to find them. Therefore, without relenting in our search for Iranian materials we placed great emphasis on getting assistance from the Mission. During the period of my stay in Iran, we never succeeded in having the Mission send us, as a matter of course, the results of their work and investigation. To the best of my knowledge this is still true. Consequently, much valuable data was never systematically made available to persons who could use it.

As the person who was responsible for the field of personnel administration in the Institute, I never received this information, nor, apparently, did the Americans who read my manuscript before it was submitted. Even more striking is the fact that apparently the interested Iranian government officials did not have these data. The information for my article was collected over a period of a year *after the census* by means of monthly meetings with the personnel directors of the Government of Iran and through questionnaires distributed to these directors. They did not know of the census because they were my source for the statement that none had been taken and for the estimate which I reported.

I made no mention of the work of the various outside agencies in assisting administrative improvement because that is the subject of a separate article, as is a more detailed account of personnel processes and practices in Iran, which I plan to write. I am well aware of the fine work of Win Lowe and his colleagues in the Mission. I helped train at USC many of the young Iranians he refers to and, as I indicated, I assisted in the Institute.

Moreover, for two years I met monthly with the personnel directors of the government out of which meetings has grown, I am told, the Iran Personnel Association. Therefore, this omission was not a result of ignorance nor a desire to slight these efforts but rather a consequence of the focus I chose for the article.

Since any discussion of technical assistance inevitably raises the question of what has been achieved as a result of this assistance and what lasting improvements have occurred because of natural, internal developments, I chose not to imply or attribute causation. That, too, is the subject for another article. At this point we are in agreement that improvement is taking place.

One other sentence in Win's letter deserves comment. He says that, while problems still exist, "Western, and especially American, ideas about sound public management are now becoming well known." I am sure they are. But are Western, and especially American, ideas going to provide the solution to Iran management problems, particularly in light of that country's historical and cultural milieu? The insightful analysis of the problems encountered in setting up any central agency in Iran is a case in point.

I would like to raise a question for future discussion whether, as Win suggests, "the gifted Iranians" *should* employ these ideas in the future. Perhaps the job of the consultant is to help Iranians search for ideas which are appropriate for the solution of their problems in the light of their environment.

RICHARD W. GABLE
Associate Professor
University of Southern California
School of Public Administration

Notes and Quotes

The "New Frontier" Speaks . . .

I here pledge myself and my colleagues in the cabinet to a continuous encouragement of initiative, responsibility and energy in serving the public interest.

Let every public servant know, whether his post is high or low, that a man's rank and reputation in this administration will be determined by the size of the job he does, and not by the size of his staff, his office or his budget.

Let it be clear that this administration recognizes the value of daring and dissent—that we greet healthy controversy as the hallmark of healthy change.

Let the public service be a proud and lively career. And let every man and woman who works in any area of our national Government, in any branch, at any level, be able to say with pride and honor in future years: "I served the United States Government in that hour of our Nation's need."

For only through complete dedication by us all to the national interest can we bring our country through the troubled years that lie ahead.—President John F. Kennedy, State of the Union Address, January 30, 1961.

Think Kindly of the Public Servant . . .

I want to talk briefly today about one of the most maligned citizens in our society—the public servant. . . . The job of a public servant is not easy in a democracy. In an authoritarian state, the problem is simple because public service is built on loyalty to the dictator. In a democracy, where administration must be founded on allegiance to the public, the problem is difficult, because the public speaks with many voices. This demands considerable and unique efforts to build and maintain a dedicated and understanding public service. . . . Despite the introduction of civil service many years ago, there are still countless people who regard government service with distrust and suspicion. . . . [W]e need better understanding of the public servant. It is his job to maintain a balance among the forces seeking government support, and these forces are constantly changing. In this situation, public confidence furnishes his strongest support. . . . I hope you will look upon the career public servant as one who . . . is seeking personal satisfaction in his profession and a better life for those he serves.—Hon. Gaylord Nelson, Governor of Wisconsin, *The Wisconsin State Employee,* December, 1960.

Mirror, Mirror On the Wall . . .

The inclination to blame our inability to accomplish certain things on the fact that the boss does not believe in them or on a subordinate's refusal to accept them actually diminishes our own effectiveness. . . . Rather than looking for the weaknesses in the other fellow as an explanation of our difficulties, it might be wise to change our approach and first examine ourselves and our own performance.—Lawrence A. Appley, "The Other Fellow and I," *Management News,* February, 1960.